AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. III. MARCH, 1826. Vol. I.

ACCOUNT OF THE SYSTEM OF INFANT SCHOOLS.

(Continued from p. 72.)

Subjects of Instruction in an Infant School.

It cannot be too frequently urged upon those who have the care of the education of infants, that the *quantity* of knowledge which it is possible to communicate to the mind, is a question of the least importance. The present intellectual capacity of children, is not therefore a suitable measure of the instruction which may be given.

In the education of infants, three objects must be kept in view, as guides to the superintendent in his selection of the subjects of instruction. The first object of infant education, is, *to bring the mind itself into action, and to improve its faculties.* The second is, *to prepare the child for the discipline of the schools in which he may be destined to pursue his education, after he has left the infant establishment;* and the third, *to improve the tone of his bodily powers and health,* in order to the removal of the natural impediments which might oppose themselves to the progress of his proposed education.

In discussing the subjects of instruction which are suggested by the first of these, I will suppose, that whatever other mental powers may offer themselves to general education in man, as an intellectual and moral being, there are four which seem to be peculiarly within the province of the system which we are now considering. We must propose to ourselves to improve the *memory*, the *judgement*, the *conscience*, and the *heart*.

Among other things, then, which will hereafter be mentioned, the memory of an infant may with excellent effect be exercised in the attainment of some of the more simple principles of number, or the

various useful tables; in learning some of the more plain moral precepts, the more simple texts of scripture, or hymns in the plainest and most familiar language; together with whatever else may, in the judgement of the teacher, be calculated to aid the future efforts of the child, in the attainment of knowledge.

The teacher can be at no loss for subjects of instruction. He may commence, however, from those things which are present with the senses, which convey directly ideas to the mind, through the eye, or the ear, or the touch. He may next proceed to those which are absent; and, in the progress of his attempt to call this faculty of his little school into correct action, he may at last suggest to their inquiring minds those things which are contingent or possible. Color, form, posture, and other accidents of things, may be the subjects of idea, of comparison, and of judgement. The room around him, the garden, the fields, the common instruments of a life of labor, will offer those things on which he may lead forth the early energies of the infant. The arts also, as far as they may possibly be subject to the observation of a passing child, and the trades, by which the sustenance of their families is obtained, may in succession be brought forward; and he may be taught to think accurately, and, according to his capacity and the small range of language which is possessed by him, to define correctly.

Moral powers.—Some difference of opinion seems to exist on the best mode of cultivating the moral powers in the early age of infancy. The question is one of the utmost importance, and one on which the success or failure, the benefit or the uselessness of the system of infant schools very materially depends. It cannot then be doubted, I presume, that howsoever ignorant children may be of the particulars of true morals, there is a certain consciousness of right and wrong, which is coeval with the first rays of rational light in the mind. It is the business of true morality to give practical force to these incipient energies, and to bring the habitual pursuit of that which is right, and the habitual avoidance of that which is wrong, to form a constituent part of the active life of the future man; for it is contrary to all just analogy to believe that, although all other human faculties are capable of cultivation and improvement, the conscience will approach to its perfection without adventitious aid. It would have been well for human society, if the correction of this faculty had, at all times, formed one principal object in the education of the young; and if it had thus kept pace with the improvement of the intellectual powers, and the strength and energy which have been given to the memory.

Now, although the mind of infants, at the early age at which they are admitted into these schools, is not capable of the intellectual reception of religion, as a system of doctrines, it may never-

theless be made the very principal part of their education, so far as it is an influence, as it offers to us a record of interesting facts and examples, as *it is a principle of the earlier duties of life*, as it suggests and enforces those actions which are suitable to the stage of infancy, and as it is adapted to the earliest convictions of the moral powers.

The Heart.—When I speak, further, of the cultivation of the heart, I intend by that term the seat or fountain of the passions and the desires. As a subject of education, the question here solves itself into those of self-knowledge and self-restraint. We have gained but little in the moral culture of a child, when we have brought him to start from evil only from fear of its consequences, or to regard the eye of a parent or a teacher, while he is unconscious of the sacred impression of the acknowledged presence of God. Even habitual self-constraint, on these qualified principles, is very far from being the most complete victory which may be obtained. The judicious teacher will endeavor to instruct his children in self-government on the most simple principles of religion. He will deliver the heart into the active custody of the enlightened conscience. His lessons on self-government will not be confined to the moment of evil excitation; but when the surface is calm, and when the mind is conscious that pleasurable feelings are to be preserved only while the passions are allayed; then he will instruct them in the difficult lesson; and he will, with every hope of success, illustrate his instruction by the motives which are to be derived from the examples of the sacred scriptures, both on one side and on the other.

The remarks which have been hitherto made on the subject of instruction in an infant school, have related to the cultivation of the mind, and the improvement of its faculties. It is impossible, I would hope, to doubt, that if their education were to be confined, even within these limits, the children would, in many important particulars, be far better prepared for the schools to which they may be afterwards sent, than they could be without the intervention of such an establishment. We are now to regard this system as preparatory to the parochial schools. It is indeed most highly desirable to make them so, and the system is eminently suitable to that purpose. The subjects of instruction in the parochial schools, are, upon the whole, the best which can be chosen for infant schools. They are there taught reading, religious knowledge, arithmetic, and writing. The difference does not consist so much in the outline as in the manner of filling it up.

The Scriptures.—In applying this course of remark to the sacred volume, the range which is before us is far more extensive,

The knowledge of the scriptures is one of the principal objects of the instruction in our parochial schools. To this point, also, the education followed in the infant schools is directed, almost without the hope that any more than the first class, at most, shall be able to read any part of them with propriety. The mind of the infant is, however, constantly preparing for this desirable acquisition. In order to aid them in the technical use of the sacred volume, they commit to memory the names and the order of the various books; the number of chapters in each, and, in some instances, the prtncipal subjects of the chapters. As an aid to the formal understanding of the contents of the scriptures, they are introduced to a knowledge of the narratives which are there to be found; the natural history of its animals; and its various tables, as compared with our own modes of calculation. And it is presumed, that it may lead to a farther understanding of their purpose and intention, when they are informed of some of the more simple customs of the eastern countries; when the emblems and figures of scripture are brought before their eyes, in the course of nature around them; and when the events of their own life are adduced, as illustrative of some of its more important truths and commands.

ARITHMETIC.—We may follow the same course of remark concerning the subject of arithmetic.

With the exception of the first class, which should, as much as possible, be assimilated to those of the higher schools, arithmetic, as such, does not form part of this system. It is proposed, rather to prepare the mind of the children for this study, than to communicate the art itself. For this purpose, the principal effort which is made, is in the learning of number in its more simple combinations and proportions. Short calculations, which may be made without the aid of the pencil, will naturally follow upon this, both as an exercise of the power which has been communicated in the acquirement of number, and as a nearer approach to the art.

To these are added, the various useful tables which must be committed to memory, before any progress in arithmetic can be made.

It will be perceived, that the first of the foregoing processes, the acquirement of number, confers a twofold benefit. It strengthens the mind itself, expands the faculties, and is an easy mode of exciting the learner to the exercise of thought, while it prepares him, in the most effectual manner, for the arithmetical art. The latter has principal reference to his progress in higher schools.

WRITING.—It may be said of writing also, with the same exception of the first class, that, as a distinct art, it does not form part of the system of infant education. Letters may be reduced to elementary forms, which may be traced by the eye of the child, and imitated

without any considerable effort. He will thus have acquired almost insensibly, the incipiency of the art itself; and, when it may be thought right thus far to instruct him, he will, with perfect ease, proceed to form and to combine the letters of the alphabet, and to write.

It will not be imagined, I presume, that it is proposed in this system, to place the subjects which have been mentioned indiscriminately before the minds of all the little assembly which may have met under the roof of an infant establishment. The children are admitted into these schools from the age of two, to that of their entrance into the parochial institutions, which is generally six or seven. They are therefore under the guidance of their first teacher during an average period of four years. If he be judicious, it will be in his bosom to arrange the subjects of instruction according to their age and capacities, and the progress of their education. On the first admission of a child, it may occupy some considerable period, for the little mind to accustom itself to the novel circumstances around it, and to catch the idea of the purpose for which it is there introduced. Quiet observation will soon assist the teacher in determining the place which the infant is to hold in the order of the system; and he will not think the time lost, if weeks, or even months, are at first passed over without further progress than is made in the acquirement of order and attention.

Health.—I have placed health among the principal objects of a superintendent of an infant school, not only because this is confessedly of the very first importance in children of the age to be admitted into these institutions, but also because the purposes of the system cannot possibly be answered without it. The system fails when the little assembly begins to lose the influence of vivacity and cheerfulness, and a lesson is not rightly taught, if it have not been received with real pleasure by the pupil. With a view then to this excellent object, muscular action is made a component and necessary part of the system. Every lesson is accompanied with some movement of the person. And these movements are so varied, that, in turn, the whole frame is at different periods called into action and restored to rest. The beat of the foot, the clap with the hands, the extension of the arms, with various other postures, are measures of the utterance of the lesson as they proceed. The position is also frequently changed. The infants learn sitting, standing, or walking. And when the lesson has ceased, and there is a pause before the commencement of that which is to follow, the period is given either to absolute rest and silence, to some simple air, or to the performance of some evolution, under the guidance, and after the example, of the monitor of their class. For a similar purpose a play-ground or garden is attached, wherever that may

be possible, to the school-room; and for half an hour during each school time, when the weather is suitable, the little flock is turned out for amusement and play. There are, indeed, many of the lessons in which their minds are called into action, which may as well, and even with better effect, during the months of the summer, be taught in the open air, within view of the book of nature. But, should the weather be unfavorable to these recreations, and this mode of instruction, the ample space of the school-room affords every opportunity for sufficient exercise, and especial care is at all times taken to replenish it with the purest atmosphere, without exposing the little assembly to draughts.

I may add to the foregoing, as in its measure conducive to the increase of the health of the infants, the frequently recurring lessons of cleanliness which are given to them.

The success of these attempts to confirm the health of the infants, in the establishments whose system we now consider, is not any longer a question of theory. They have stood the test of experience, and the result has been in every respect satisfactory. With the exception of the peculiar diseases of children, whose absence no system can possibly secure, health and cheerfulness have universally followed upon a constant attendance of the children at these institutions.

(To be continued.)

MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS.

[Most subjects in which we can trace the progress of the human mind, present one point of resemblance: they show, here and there, an individual penetrating far beyond his contemporaries, and anticipating improvements which become the boast of posterity. The history of education furnishes a striking instance of this kind, in Dr. Anderson, who is now justly regarded as the founder of mechanics' institutions. This enlightened and philanthropic individual was distinguished for the zeal with which he prosecuted his researches in natural philosophy, and the pleasure which he took in diffusing a taste for this branch of science, at a time when it was far from being so popular as it is now.

Dr. Anderson was eminent as a professor; but his attachment to the subject of his lectures was not that merely which grew out of his office. He was earnestly desirous that useful science should be universally studied. He saw its vast importance to every class of the community. He regarded its confinement within the walls of a college as a serious injury to society. He foresaw, in particular,

the approaching universal demand for physical science; and it is to this circumstance that we trace its introduction into the liberal and comprehensive plan which he devised for the foundation of a circle of professional schools.

One of the departments of the seminary, which was founded by Dr. Anderson, proved the germ of the mechanics' institutions which have recently been established in almost every town in Great Britain. A brief sketch, therefore, of the institution established by the liberality of Dr. Anderson, will, we think, form a suitable introduction to the main subject of our present article.]

Anderson's Institution was incorporated, on June 9th, 1796, by a charter from the magistrates of the city. It was established by the late Mr. John Anderson, professor of natural philosophy in the university of Glasgow, who, by his will, endowed it with his valuable philosophical apparatus, museum, and library. It was placed under the inspection and control of the Lord Provost, and other magistrates, the president of the Faculty of physicians and surgeons, the dean of the procurators, and the moderators of the synod of Glasgow and Ayr, and of the presbyteries of Glasgow and Dunbarton. The immediate superintendence is vested in eighty-one trustees, consisting of gentlemen conversant with the arts and sciences; from these, nine persons are elected annually, to whom the principal part of the management is committed.

The views of the venerable founder of this scientific seminary embraced a complete circle of liberal education, adapted to the present improved state of society. His intentions were directed towards the establishment of four colleges, viz. one of arts, one of medicine, another of law, and a fourth of theology. Circumstances, however, have hitherto limited the plan to physical science, comprehending natural philosophy, chemistry, materia medica, and pharmacy. There is also a mechanics' class, to which a considerable library is appropriated.

In 1798, the managers of the institution purchased a building in John-street. In this they fitted up a spacious circular hall forty-five feet in diameter, which can accommodate five hundred auditors. There are likewise other apartments and conveniences for containing the library, museum, and apparatus. To the original stock of these, considerable additions have been made, by donation and purchase; and the managers have also procured every article necessary for furnishing complete illustrations of experimental philosophy and chemistry.

The collection of models and apparatus, in this seminary, is very extensive and various, and has been essentially useful in promoting the public improvement. The school also exhibits a peculiar trait,

by affording to all ranks, and either sex, an easy access to the principles of philosophy.

Popular and scientific lectures were first given in the institution, by the late Dr. Thomas Garnett. He was succeeded by Dr. George Birbeck, who added a course of geography and astronomy, and another, upon a plain and elementary plan, for the advantage of persons engaged in mechanic and chemical arts. The professorship of natural philosophy and chemistry is at present filled by Dr. Andrew Ure.

The mechanics' class had access, occasionally, to an astronomical observatory, of which we subjoin an account.

The observatory situated on Garnett-hill, was erected in 1810, from designs by Mr. Webster of London, in the Egyptian style of architecture, and is divided into three departments. The first forms a scientific observatory for the purpose of watching and recording the celestial phenomena, in order to promote the general interests of science. The second is popular, and furnished with every instrument capable of blending instruction with amusement. A camera-obscura apparatus, on a great scale, introduces a vivid representation of the surrounding landscape, composing a living, moving, and ever-varying panorama. Telescopes of different kinds display the magnificent host of heaven, while the solar microscope* reveals the other extreme of creation. The third department is dedicated to the accommodation of the subscribers. It is furnished with maps, charts, and globes, of the largest dimensions and finest execution, and also provided with valuable treatises on astronomy, navigation, and commerce. The meteorological instruments, destined to indicate with accuracy the existing state, and approaching changes, of the weather, are also arranged in this room. On an adjoining terrace, is placed the grand telescope of Herschel. To execute this plan, three thousand pounds were required. This sum was raised by one hundred and fifty shares of twenty pounds each. The share is heritable and transferable property. The construction, superintendence, and management, of the institution, is vested in the proprietors, or in a committee appointed by them at a general meeting.—*Picture of Glasgow.*

* The society has purchased from Mr. Dolland the largest solar microscope that optician has ever constructed. The first trial of this superb instrument disclosed some wonderful phenomena. Hundreds of insects were discovered devouring the body of a *gnat*, and scores had lived luxuriously for several months on the leg of a *moth*. These animalcules were magnified so as to appear nine inches long, their actual size being somewhat less than the fourteen hundreth part of an inch. The mineral kingdom afforded another display of brilliant objects: their crystallisation, and the splendor of their coloring, exceed any thing the most lively imagination can possibly conceive.

The mechanics' lecture at Anderson's Institution, had done much to diffuse among the artisans of Glasgow, a taste for natural philosophy, and particularly for chemistry; when the gas-light company commenced its operations.

The following extract from the London Mechanics' Magazine, contains matter which reflects great credit on the above mentioned company, and which forms a very interesting passage in the history of mechanics' institutions.

'The gas-light chartered company of this city (Glasgow) employ constantly between sixty and seventy men in their works. Twelve of these are mechanics, and the remainder furnace-men and common laborers of different descriptions, forming altogether a community not very promising as a body to be incited to adopt measures for their own intellectual improvement.

'A little more than three years ago, our manager at the works, Mr. James B. Nelson, proposed to these men to contribute each a small sum monthly, to be laid out in books to form a library for their common use; and he informed them that if they agreed to do this, the company would give them a room to keep their books in, which should be heated and lighted for them in winter, and in which they might meet every evening to read and converse, in place of going to the alehouse, as many of them had been in the practice of doing. That the company would further give them a present of five guineas to set out with; and that the management of the funds, library, and every thing connected with the measure, should be entrusted to a committee of themselves, to be named and renewed by them at certain fixed periods.

'With a good deal of persuasion Mr. Nelson got fourteen of them to agree to the plan; and a commencement was thus made. For the first two years, until it could be ascertained that the members would have a proper care of the books, it was agreed that they should not take them out of the reading-room, but that they should meet there every evening to peruse them. After this period, however, the members were allowed to take the books home; and last year they met only twice a week at the reading-room to change them, and converse on what they had been reading. The increase of the number of subscribers to the library was at first very slow, and at the end of the second year, the whole did not amount to thirty. But from conversing with one another twice a week at the library, upon the acquisitions they had been making, a taste for science and a desire for information began to spread among them.

'They had, a little before this time, got an atlas, which, they say, led them to think of purchasing a pair of globes; and one from among themselves, Alexander Anderson, by trade a joiner, who had had the advantage of attending two courses of the lectures in the

Andersonian Institution, volunteered, about the beginning of last winter, to explain, on Monday evenings, the use of the globes. Finding himself succeed in doing this, he offered to give them, on Thursday evenings, an account of some of the principles and processes in mechanics and chemistry, accompanied with a few experiments. This he effected with a simplicity of illustration and usefulness of purpose that was delightful. He next, and while this was going on, undertook, along with another of the workmen, to attend in the reading-room, during the other evenings of the week, and teach such of the members as chose, arithmetic.

'For the business of the present season, the members of the society (who conduct every thing themselves) have made a new arrangement. The individuals of the committee have come under an agreement to give in rotation a lecture, either in chemistry or mechanics, every Thursday evening; taking Murray for their text-book in the one, and Ferguson in the other. They intimate, a fortnight before, to the person whose turn it is, that he is to lecture from such a page to such a page of one of these authors. He has, in consequence, then fourteen days to make himself acquainted with his subject, and he is authorised to claim, during that period, the assistance of every member of the society in preparing the chemical experiments, or making the little models of machines required for illustrating his discourse.

'The effect of all that I have been relating has been most beneficial to the general character and happiness of these individuals; and we may readily conceive what a valuable part of the community they are likely to become, and what the state of the whole of our manufacturing population would be, if the people employed in every large work were enabled to adopt similar measures.

'The gas-light company, seeing the beneficial consequences resulting from the instruction of their work people, have fitted up for them, this winter, a more commodious room to meet in for their lectures, with a small laboratory and workshop attached to it, where they can conduct their experiments and prepare the models to be used in the lectures. The men last year made for themselves an air-pump and an electrifying machine, and some of them are constantly engaged during their spare hours in the laboratory and workshop.

'The whole of the workmen, with the exception of about fifteen, have now become members of the society; and these have been standing out on the plea that they cannot read; they are men chiefly from the remote parts of the highlands or from Ireland: but the others say to them, 'Join us, and we shall teach you to read;' and I have no doubt of their persuading them to do so.

'The rules of the society, which have been framed by the members themselves, are simple and judicious. Every person, on becoming a member, pays 7*s*. 6*d*. entry money. This sum is taken from him by instalments, and is paid back to him should he leave the gas-works, or to his family or heirs, should he die. Besides this entrance money, each member contributes three half-pence weekly, two-thirds of which, by a rule made this year, go to the library, and one-third to the use of the laboratory and workshop. By a rule made at the same time, which I think a curious indication of the state of feeling produced in these men in the short period since the commencement of the society, the members may bring to the lectures any of their sons who are above seven and under twenty-one years of age.

'The books now amount to above three hundred volumes, and consist of elementary works of science, and of history, voyages, and travels; some of the standard poets, a few of our best novels, and Shakspeare's works. The selection of the books purchased by the library funds is, in general, creditable to the members of the society. They admit no books on religion. The members say that there are among them men of a variety of persuasions—presbyterians, seceders, methodists, Church of England men, and Roman catholics; each of whom would be for introducing books connected with their particular opinions, and thus give occasion to endless unprofitable disputes.'

The following extract from the Quarterly Review gives an account of the progress of science, among the mechanics of Edinburgh, London, and other places.

'In 1821, a few gentlemen in Edinburgh, who were disposed to encourage the experiment, circulated a prospectus among the mechanics, announcing the commencement of a course of lectures on mechanics, and another on chemistry, with the opening of a library of books on the same subject, for perusal at home as well as in the room; the hours of lecture to be from eight to nine in the evening, twice a week for six months; and the terms of admission to both lectures and library fifteen shillings a year. When 400 mechanics had purchased tickets, the two courses of lectures were delivered by Dr. Forbes and Mr. Galbraith; with the addition of one on architecture, and one on farriery, and of a class for architectural and mechanical drawing during the summer recess.'

In 1822, the editors of the Mechanics' Magazine invited the attention of their readers to these institutions.

'We are desirous,' they say, 'of seeing a London Mechanics' Institute established by the mechanics of the metropolis themselves.

It is so obvious that it will be for the interest of the mechanics, if, instead of assembling at a pot-house in an evening, besotting themselves with the fumes of tobacco and draughts of porter, stupifying their minds, and bringing disease on their bodies, rendering themselves more abject than the circumstances of society, which are painful enough, will render them; we say it would be so much for their interest, if they were to meet in large and well-aired rooms, and endeavor to acquire a knowledge at a cheap rate of the elements of science; that we do not doubt their ultimately, and of themselves, establishing the London Mechanics' Institute.'

'The formation of a society soon followed this address; and in the course of the year 1824, as we learn from Mr. Brougham's pamphlet, lectures were delivered by Mr. Phillips on chemistry, Mr. Dotchin on geometry, Dr. Birkbeck, on hydrostatics, Mr. Cooper on the application of chemistry to the arts, Mr. Newton on astronomy, Mr. Tatum on electricity, and Mr. Black on the French language, to great and increasing numbers of workmen. About a thousand now belong to the Institution, and pay twenty shillings a year.*

'Similar institutions are at the present time established, or on the point of being established, in almost every town in England whose population reaches 10,000, and in some of much smaller numbers. Publications intended for the use of mechanics, and unintelligible without some knowledge of natural philosophy and mathematics, have a wide and increasing circulation. Every thing indicates a growing spirit of inquiry, an increased desire, and with it an increased power of acquiring knowledge.'

The Edinburgh Review for August 1825, contains the following information concerning the rapid increase of mechanics' institutions in England.

'The desire of knowledge spreads with each effort made to satisfy it. The sacred thirst of science is becoming epidemic; and we look forward to the day when the laws of matter and of mind shall be known to all men; when an acquaintance with them shall no longer be deemed, as heretofore, the distinction of a few superior minds; any more than being able to read or write now constitutes, as it once did, the title to scholarship.

'In all, or almost all, the institutions lately formed, it is truly gratifying to observe the sound principles which have been adopted. The whole body of contributors and subscribers are on the same footing of members and proprietors; the management is entrusted to committees, of which two-thirds, at the least, must be working mechanics; and the funds are, as much as possible, raised by the sub-

* Practical Observations, p. 21.

scriptions of the working classes, in order to secure the permanency of the institutions, and to avoid the feeling of dependence. These are the true fundamental principles of this important system. They are all recognised in the rules of the Ashton establishment now before us; and the last of the three is well commented upon in Mr. Hindley's address. 'You are not' (says he) 'to imagine that this institution is, in the common acceptation of the word, a charitable one; that it is an offering on the part of the rich and the learned, to the poor and the ignorant. No! it is an institution which requires from all its members value received in return for the advantages it offers. The higher classes of society come forward at first to extend the hand of *encouragement*, not of *charity;* and the feeling with which that encouragement is received on the part of the poor, needs have no mixture of the dependence and the shame which is always the companion of the almsman on the rich man's bounty.

'The example of the original London institution has, as might be expected, been followed in the metropolis. Under the auspices of Mr. Gibson, and other most respectable individuals, an institution has been formed for the eastern parts of the city, in the Spitalfields district; and we believe that steps have been taken to establish one in Southwark.

'Among the remoter parts of the country, Northumberland certainly stands conspicuous. Mr. Losh, the zealous and enlightened friend of every good work, himself a man filled with various and useful knowledge, and whom an habitual love of classical literature has only made the more anxious for the education of the people—Mr. Turner, who, among the first, years ago opened the doors of his lecture-room to the mechanics, and who is not more distinguished as a pious and learned divine, than as an acute natural philosopher; with others whose names would, had we space, adorn our pages, have so strenuously exerted themselves in this great labor, that we understand there is not now a single market-town in the country without a mechanics' institution, excepting Afton; and there, proceedings have been commenced for founding one. The gratuitous lectures of Mr. Turner at Newcastle are very numerously attended by the mechanics, whose attention and regularity are highly commended by the learned professor. How truly *pious* is this discharge of his duty! How greatly to be esteemed, beyond the waste of temper, as well as of precious time, in bootless controversy! How infinitely to be prized, before the base and sordid spirit that seeks emolument by affecting a zeal about civil or ecclesiastical distinctions, or licking the dust trodden under the feet of those who hold the keys of preferment!

'The suggestions that had been circulated from London through the country, have been effectual to another good purpose; the extension of similar associations to country laborers as well as artisans. Farmers' book-clubs have been formed in several places; and we trust that the excellent plan of circulating libraries, adopted in East Lothian, that is, libraries which are transferred from one village to another in succession, and used by the inhabitants both of the villages and the neighboring country, will be imitated elsewhere.

'The system indeed appears to be working in every direction, and in remote and inconsiderable places. In spring, a beginning was made at Newport, in the Isle of Wight, a town of very moderate size, containing only about 4000 inhabitants. A Tradesman's and Mechanic's Library was formed, under very judicious regulations; the subscription being six shillings a year, or 1*s.* 6*d.* per quarter. The number of members soon exceeded 200; and by means of donations, the library in a few months consisted of 500 volumes. There is nothing more useful than to promote the practice of such donations. Almost every man who has a few shelves full of books, has some volume or two useless to him, either as duplicates, early editions, or works the contents of which others present in a better form. The movers in founding an institution, should bestir themselves to obtain gifts of these books, which are invaluable as the beginnings of a library, and of no value to the owners. Lectures have been added at Newport, by the worthy and enlightened secretary, Mr. Abraham Clarke; and others have signified their intention of taking a similar part. In truth, it requires no professional lecturer to perform this important office. He who has learnt—even he who *is learning* chemistry, natural philosophy, or natural history himself, may render the greatest service in explaining those sciences to others who have not the same leisure, or the same command of teachers, books, and apparatus. In the Newport Society, all subscribers are members; and two-thirds of the Committee of Management are mechanics, according to the just principles.

'Meanwhile the central establishment in London has flourished beyond the most sanguine expectations of its enlightened supporters. The foundation of the theatre was laid about Christmas; and on the 8th of July it was completed and opened by the distinguished founder, Dr. Birkbeck, supported by his royal highness the Duke of Sussex, the Marquis of Lansdown, Sir R. Wilson, Messrs. Brougham, Wood, Hume, Martin, and other zealous friends of popular education; some of whom addressed the meeting, after the Doctor had closed his admirable lecture. The premises are spacious, and elegant, though perfectly simple,—consisting of a commodious house, in which there are large apartments for the library, appara-

tus, reading-rooms, and the secretary and other officers. The theatre is a fine and lofty hall, where above a thousand students can easily be accommodated. The lecture of the learned President was a most interesting dissertation upon the advantages of intellectual pursuits, and contained many anecdotes of the shameful ignorance which in former times pervaded all ranks, even the highest in the state. It is to be wished that this discourse, or the substance of it, should be published, both in remembrance of the occasion upon which it was pronounced, and for its intrinsic usefulness. We have called Dr. Birkbeck the founder of this building; and well we may, for he advanced the money (several thousand pounds) which purchased the house and erected the theatre. Other magnificent donations, (especially Sir Francis Burdett's of a thousand pounds, and that of his able, accomplished, and excellent colleague, Mr. Hobhouse, of a hundred,) have been duly appreciated by the country. It is, however, only just to the working mechanics themselves to state, what we have good reason to know, that had no such helps been at hand, they were firmly resolved to raise the needful sums among their own body; and from their numbers and respectability, there can be no doubt that, in a few months, they would have accomplished this favorite object.

'Statements of a most cheering nature were at the same time communicated to the meeting, evincing the happy effects produced throughout the country by the example of the metropolis. Bath, which, from the composition of its population, might not have been expected to join so early as many other places, in this noble struggle for liberating the people from 'the thraldom of ignorance,' as Milton calls it, had established a mechanics' institution, under the happiest auspices. Liverpool had added lectures to her excellent mechanics' library and reading rooms. A beginning had been made at Birmingham, (where undoubtedly an earlier attention to so congenial a plan might have been expected,) promising the best results, in that wonderful resort of skillful and industrious workmen. Leeds too, under the influence of two most able and worthy men, though of different sects in church as well as state affairs, Messrs. Marshall* and Galt, had founded an extensive and thriving institution. And it was further reported, that almost daily accounts arrived of similar efforts in the same great cause, being attended with merited success. These articles of what may truly be termed philosophical intelligence, diffused the most lively satisfaction through that most numerous and respectable meeting; and we devoutly hope, that before another anniversary shall be holden of the parent institution, her offspring will have increased as the sands of the sea.

* Mr. Marshall has published an admirable summary of Political Philosophy for Artisans, in a cheap and compendious form.

To promote this most desirable end, it has been often announced by the promoters of the institutions already founded, and especially by those of the London institution, that they will most willingly lend every assistance in their power, giving whatever information may be required as to the steps best to be taken, and the difficulties which, in distant places, may obstruct such designs.'

PROPOSED INSTITUTION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

(Continued from p. 95.)

We now proceed to mention those provisions for the school, which will require expense, and which will of course involve an inquiry into the necessary funds; and here we may again remark, that as to many of these particulars, they must, in the first instance, be left to the discretion of that body, in whose hands shall be entrusted the organisation of the school.—There will be required,

1st.—*A Site for building.*

A *farm and garden.*—The quantity of land, we suppose to be fifty acres; certainly not more than one hundred. This land is not to be obtained at the expense of the State, but to proceed from the bounty of the town and vicinity in which the location shall be. —The commissioners have no doubt, that many towns in the State, would give a much larger boon, for the advantage of the location.

2d.—*Buildings.*

They propose, that there shall be *one or two principal buildings*, as shall be found most convenient, to furnish accommodation for lecture rooms, recitation rooms, public expenses of every kind, rooms for philosophical and chemical apparatus, for botanical and mineralogical exhibitions, and for the library, models, plans, drawings, &c. The expense of the principal building, or buildings, not to exceed fifteen thousand dollars, including the necessary *work-shops*, out-buildings, and fences. Work-shops, in which the pupils may learn something of the common mechanical operations, are an indispensable part of the plan. These combine profit, pleasure, and health. This rejects the idea of buildings, to serve as *dormitories*, or to furnish accommodations for *commons*, neither of which are deemed necessary; on the contrary, the commissioners leave out so much of that system of supervision, which now prevails, as requires, that the pupils should be under the eye of the teachers, and for that purpose demands buildings, sufficient to fur-

nish eating and sleeping apartments. They do not deem it applicable to these schools. There is much to be said, on both sides of this question. One thing, however, may be observed; and that is, that in those schools, which are resorted to, principally by young men coming out of the laboring classes, who are enured to habits of sobriety and industry, and who feel a deep conviction that industry is their only resource, there will be found the best discipline, and the best morals. Necessity has been said to be the mother of industry: decent, orderly behavior, belongs to the same family. The example of the morals of the school which is proposed, we do not believe, will be lost elsewhere.

3d. *Books.*—4th. *Philosophical Apparatus.*—5th. *Chemical Apparatus.*—6th. *Maps, Charts, Globes.*—7th. *Models, Plans, Drawings.*—8th. *Tools, and Mechanical Exhibitions.*—9th. *Mineralogical and Botanical Exhibitions and Specimens.*

For these several items, the commissioners propose, an expenditure of fifteen thousand dollars. Thus far, we have an expenditure of thirty thousand dollars.

It is very obvious, that this appropriation for these various objects, is small; but will, we think, enable the school to go into successful operation. The commissioners in proposing an appropriation so limited, have a distinct view to an extension of the number of the schools.

10th. *Teachers.*

A school, like every other thing, must have a beginning. Though the commissioners intend to propose the plan of a school such as they think should be endowed by the State; still it must be obvious to all, that in an untried system, many things must be left to time, to develope its actual wants; to ascertain what revenues will be wanted, and how they shall be best applied. The truth of this observation can be nowhere more apparent, than in reference to the subject of *teachers*. That must be a bad school, where the *teachers* are incompetent, whatever other provisions may be made for it. For this school, the commissioners propose, as the very first object, the best qualified instructers and managers. This should be a *sine qua non:* the success of the experiment depends upon it. They believe that ultimately, and in a short time, the school will support itself. It cannot be expected, that this will be the case, upon its opening.

Gratuitous Instruction, is no part of the plan.—This would not be just, in regard to that portion of the community, who cannot avail themselves of the benefit of it, nor would it be expedient, in reference to those who may. The sons of respectable farmers, mechanics, and merchants, cannot expect to be educated at the ex-

pense of the State. There are at present, in the colleges of Massachusetts more than five hundred students. If the number of two hundred be supposed in this institution, at twenty dollars as annual tuition fees, it will give four thousand dollars. At twenty-five dollars, five thousand. The commissioners believe, that the number would in a short time, be much greater; and they think, that something near the sum here named, should be the annual charge for instruction. But this is not all; the school contemplates, not only, the furnishing of instruction to those who shall go through a regular course of study, but also an opportunity to all, who shall resort to it for a less time than the established period, for the purpose of hearing lectures, and obtaining instruction, in particular departments; as for instance, in *practical mechanics*, *in chemistry*, and other branches of natural philosophy. All such would be charged a regular fee for the benefit of their instructers. These lectures will also be attended by numbers in the neighborhood of the schools, who would also pay some small sum for their tickets of admission.

It is well known that, in all seminaries of learning, there has been an objection to stated compensation no way depending upon the individual merit and assiduity of the instructer. In schools for common academical instruction, this arrangement may be unavoidable, but is by no means so in institutions upon the plan of these, where it is supposed, that individuals will resort, for that instruction which they may want in particular branches of business. The very existence of these schools, will very soon create in the neighborhood of them, a taste for liberal knowledge. There is nothing that grows faster, than such a taste, when it has opportunities for indulgence: it is because our people are debarred from such opportunities, that so little of it is apparent. Nothing can be more attractive, or more intelligible, than various experiments in natural philosophy, as applicable to the arts. When it is notorious that private schools are rising up on every side, which have no endowment whatever, and which depend for their existence upon individual exertion, and where, too, the teachers are paid so liberally, as to induce men of the best education to become instructers; the commissioners hope not to be thought extravagant in saying, that they have no doubt, that this school will ultimately support itself. At the same time, this for a while at least, must not be relied upon, because it is indispensable in the first instance, in order to procure competent men, that they should have a certain reliance for their salaries, upon funds that are subject to no contingencies. This must be upon the State, and the legislature must either create a fund, which will answer the purpose, or pledge itself to pay such sums, from time to time, as shall be required. The latter being thought most expedient, is proposed. This course is suggested because it is not

thought best for the State to raise a fund, which, in the end, may not be wanted. What deficiencies, after applying the tuition fees to the payment of the instructers, there may eventually be, or whether any, cannot now appear. The commissioners intentionally forbear to state, what number of instructers will be wanted, and the sum required for the payment of them. Their reasons are, that the subject is liable to contingencies; that the scale of instruction upon the opening of the school, may be greater or smaller, according to the will of the State, and still the main design of it be accomplished. These contingencies, whatever they may be, present no serious obstacle; because the State may in this particular, limit their bounty as to time and amount, in such a way as to be clearly within its ability. Besides, much must be left to the discretion of those, who shall have the first organisation of the school.

Thus far it appears, that a present disbursement of thirty thousand dollars will be required, and that the State will be obliged, in addition to that, to guarantee the necessary funds, for the payment of the teachers, until the school is in successful operation.

When we consider the various wants of such an institution, the ability of the State, its bounty to the colleges, this may be thought an insignificant sum, as a capital for the objects proposed. We think, however, that prudence and economy in the outset, will best suit the taste of our people; besides we think, that it is but justice to all parts of the State, that the present scale of expense, should comport with the extension of these schools, which we believe will be indispensable.

The commissioners now proceed to some general views of the subject, which are applicable to it in every form.

By the terms of the resolution the commissioners are required, 'to prepare and digest a system for a proper organisation of a fund, to be set apart for the purposes of education; showing the sources from which the same may be obtained, and the objects to which the same ought to be applied.'

The commissioners think, that they may be excused from the performance of any other duty, than that of suggesting, the necessary provision, for the funds of the proposed Institution, without going into a general inquiry, of what ought to be the policy of the State, upon the subject at large. Indeed, the resolution could not have contemplated this; because though *common schools* are doubtless the first object, the commissioners are not furnished with the necessary facts, to enable them to propose any thing upon that subject. The resolution in terms does not require it; besides, without these facts as to the present state of the schools, no plan in regard to any further provision for them, could possibly be satisfactory. When the present resolution was adopted, various propositions

were offered in the committee, as to making an inquiry in regard to the support of common schools, a part of the duty of the commissioners, which upon consideration were abandoned, and because, it was thought, that the subjects had no necessary connection with each other.

As this is a topic, which does in fact present some difficulty, and indeed the only practical one, of any extent, the commissioners beg leave to present their views at large upon it.

In regard to the value of common schools, there is no longer any difference of opinion, and the commissioners would regret to have it thought, that they are deficient in the common sensibility that prevails in respect to them. It is unquestionably the first concern, and so they consider it, even in reference to the project now presented. Any plan, therefore, which contemplates patronage for the *higher* branches of education, to the neglect of the *common*, or for the rich to the exclusion of the poor, cannot, and ought not to receive favor. He who has a just regard for the safety, and honor of his country, will see, that *here* must be no neglected class, and above all that that class must not be the poor; that nothing can secure us from the vices and miseries of other countries, but such a system of education, as will inspire all with a sentiment of self respect, and a common feeling of sympathy in the fortunes and happiness of each other. It is this fellow feeling, arising from a deep sense of the equality of privilege, that is the foundation of the safety of free governments. The only question of a practical kind is, in what way the various wants of the State can best be subserved. Some States have been able to make such liberal grants for their schools, that common education among them, is now nearly, if not wholly *gratuitous*. This may possibly be best for them, but we think not for us. *Connecticut*, considering its population, has made by far the greatest grants, for common schools. With these grants, if we are not misinformed, effort has ended in these schools; and little is done by the people. This is the danger of that system, and it is a question of deep concern, to what extent we ought to adopt it. In the State of *New-York*, a great fund has been provided. Considering her new unfurnished settlements, in many parts her sparse population, a provision such as she has made, might be indispensable. This is not our condition. Another thing is to be considered; if they have done much as *States*, the question is, how much have we done in our *towns;* and when this inquiry comes to be made, we think it will appear, that we have not dishonored ourselves; on the contrary, that our provisions are not less liberal than theirs. This investigation should be made: indeed every other, that will show the actual state of our schools, and what is left to be done. At present, there are defects, to be sup-

plied; to this we are not to shut up our eyes. Some towns are poor; in some that are more competent, the provision for schools is inadequate: in others, the school districts are badly apportioned. It is a knowledge of these facts in regard to particular places, that has created an opinion in many persons, that the public guardians are grossly inattentive to this great concern. In what manner the State shall remedy these evils, is a question which it will be useful to consider, though unnecessary here to discuss at large. A law which should compel the towns, from time to time, to exhibit a state of their schools, would alone do something to effect the object. Public opinion would, in this way, determine the duties of the respective towns, and in a measure at least, force a compliance with them. For these reasons, we should be sorry to see a system of entirely gratuitous instruction provided for the people. Though we may call it *gratuitous*, we must not impose upon ourselves by a name; for every provision by governments for schools, must be made out of the aggregate wealth of the community; it is only the diversion of so much money from one object to another; and though we should erect a school fund, it would be a tax to that amount, and no less a tax than at present. The necessary and proper provision for schools, is a thing local in its nature, and while the principle is unquestionable that such matters are generally best regulated by those whom it immediately concerns, a principle which we have carried into all our institutions, still this does not exclude altogether the idea that the public at large, are bound to take care of those, who from ignorance or wilful neglect, show an entire indifference, as well to their own interests, as to those of the community. It would seem certain, with few exceptions, that if every town would do its duty, in proportion to its ability, the most equal and efficient taxation for common schools, must be that raised by the respective towns, and disbursed by them under all the advantages of a local knowledge, which it is impossible for a State or its agents to possess. We trust, therefore, that whatever the State shall hereafter think it expedient to do, they will, in no event, run into the error of attempting to relieve the towns from the responsibility of taking that care of the schools, which necessarily forces upon individuals, the high and interesting duty of a personal inspection and care of them. Besides, that the State will adopt no principle of providing for common schools, which does not force upon the towns, as a general rule, a proportionate provision to be made by them. We trust that these observations will not be considered out of place, and the more so, as they lead to a discussion of the other branch of the subject; that is, the importance of the proposed Institution, to these common schools; and the commissioners deceive themselves, if it cannot be made apparent, that the State can do

nothing in any other way, with any thing like the same expense, that will so directly and efficiently benefit common schools. This indeed is the strong ground upon which the project stands before the public, in claiming its favor, not of this or that class, but of all, rich and poor.

The standard of knowledge and taste in the common schools, does not comport with the spirit of the age. Adam Smith, in his "Wealth of Nations," proposed fifty years ago, that the elementary parts of *Geometry and Mechanics*, should be taught in the common schools. We want that, which Bolivar has adopted as Dictator of the Peruvian Republic, a *nursery for schoolmasters*. Good schools are produced by good teachers, who have a knowledge of good books. The schoolmasters now, are many of them young men, who are fitting for college, or who resort to school-keeping while there, as a temporary resource, or after having left college, for the same object. In either event, it is not an employment upon which they rely for any length of time; and it is the case in this as in every other occupation, that nothing but long devotion to it, can furnish the necessary qualifications. The youth, inexperience, and, in many instances, even very imperfect English education of these instructers, render them totally unfit to fill a place, which in fact is one of great responsibility. Now, though it be true, that we are not yet in a state in which we can expect to find a class of professional, thorough, regularly-bred schoolmasters, devoted to that business alone, and making that the occupation of their lives; still it is true that we are approaching to that condition. It is the natural progress of things. Teaching, to a certain extent, has already become a profession, in the *higher* schools. So it is in the large towns, in *common* schools. Twenty five years ago it was not so, even in the colleges.

Will the people of this State, or ought they to be content to see every thing else advance, and their common schools remain stationary? Any one who knows any thing of schools, knows that the time of an intelligent child, is in a great measure wasted, who spends it in the present very imperfect manner upon his arithmetic, his writing copies, his spelling book, his reader's assistant, and some smattering of geography, (this is about all) from three and four years of age, to twelve and fifteen, when he leaves the school. This is now unavoidable, because we have no other standard: we have neither teachers for more, nor books that are known in those schools. Still there are, however, excellent manuals in chemistry, natural philosophy and political economy, containing most of the great principles of these sciences, and perfectly intelligible to youth within those ages. To these children, however, they are sealed books. These manuals are put into the hands of the children of

the rich, who spare no expense in their education: it is known, how lavish they are in this, compared with other expenditures; they are right, too, for it is in this way only, that they can maintain their rank in society. No man is at liberty to abandon the rational privileges which God has given him in opportunities of superior knowledge. It is plain, that the mass of our people, have not a just sensibility upon this subject. It is the duty of their legislators to inspire them with it. As the taste for a higher and better education advances, books will be written and provided, to gratify that taste: the demand for them will create them. These books will, as they should, come out of the genius of our own country, illustrate our history, pourtray our manners, expose our peculiar vices and follies, and teach that which belongs to us, as a free and privileged people. Now we are tributary to another nation. They write for themselves, and not for us. It is well known, that Mr. Edward Livingston, in preparing a *penal code* for the State of Louisiana, which will endear his name to all enlightened and benevolent men in every country, among other important suggestions, recommends that it be taught in all the schools. With us the knowledge of the rights and duties of a citizen, should make a part of the earliest education of the youth. His mind should be imbued with it, from the moment he can understand the part he is to act in a free country. This involves a knowledge of the history of his country, of its institutions, the practice of its courts, and of the great principles of law civil and criminal. There can be no doubt whatever, that the most important of these can be rendered intelligible to common capacities, and that the wide distinctions which now exist among different classes, are absurdly artificial, and have no foundation in the nature of man. To what other cause can we attribute even now, the efficient character of our people admitted on all sides, their capacity for business, public and private, than an understanding, imperfect as it may be, of these general principles? But they should be taught in the schools; nothing, however, can be taught, but that which is known. To what end shall we talk of teaching, when teachers are not to be found?

No school fund could greatly improve our schools, while the instructers are so lamentably deficient. We must turn our attention to the true source of the evil; and while we would avoid the gross indelicacy of speaking unfavorably of the schools of our sister states, it is due to truth, that we should mention the condition of the schools in Connecticut, to show that we want not only more competent school funds, but also a fund of competent knowledge in the instructers. In the institution which we contemplate, young men would be educated in such a way, as to supply the wants of the common schools. It would furnish the best preparatory education,

and not a few would resort to it, to qualify themselves for the profession of schoolmasters, thus becoming, as in time it must be, a regular occupation; an occupation too, for that description of persons, who, from their relative rank and standing in society, would be best fitted to be teachers in the common schools.

But this is not all, in reference to the bearing which the proposed institution must have upon the improvement, and prosperity of common schools. Let us not deceive ourselves; the great improvements in society in every age, have come from men of education; theirs is the first suggestion, and so it will continue to be. In what other way can we arrange, around these common schools, a band of efficient, enlightened patrons and friends, than by filling the State with men of liberal knowledge? It is in vain to hope that any great improvements will be introduced into them, unless that class be numerous, who are capable of appreciating their value, and of raising the standard of knowledge. In all provisions for education, it is necessary to remember that we live in a period in which the human mind is making efforts, of which we find no counterpart in former times; and that what was deemed a good education for the common people thirty years since, has ceased to be so regarded. We will no further enlarge upon this topic, but conclude by observing, that the greatest fund which we can now raise for common schools, and by far the most efficient, will be in the endowment of an institution, which, at little expense to the individual, shall spread useful knowledge over the State, through the great classes of merchants, mechanics, and farmers. The bounty solicited, will be by far the greatest benefaction ever imparted by the State to the poor and middling classes. It will be a law for them. Here we might bring our observations to a close, as we have briefly touched upon every topic which we consider connected with the subject; some of them, however, seem to admit with propriety of further remark.*

It is a matter of astonishment, that in a country, in which business and labor constitute distinction, there should have been no public provision made for the education of any class, but of that which is *professional.*

The state of our grammar schools, common schools, and academies, cannot be considered as a fair exception to the truth of this remark.

The question for the legislature is now reduced within narrow limits, and that is, whether it be expedient, that the colleges should receive, without participation, all the bounty of the State, granted to liberal education? If this be truly the question, it would seem, that public opinion has settled it, and though *we* may choose to pro-

* See note A, at the end of the Report.

crastinate, our successors will be compelled to act with decision. No man could do otherwise than disgrace himself, who should come forward with any system of hostility to the colleges, and the professional classes. In a great and prosperous country, these should and will have an elevated rank.

The colleges have been nursed by the State, and so we trust they will continue to be, according to her ability and the requisite provisions for other objects, and that she will never lose sight of the deep interest which she has in them.

Those who pass through the colleges, must, upon an average, devote not less than four or five years, if the period of preparation be considered, to *dead languages.*

Thus it is, that no youth can receive a liberal education, unless this period, and the most precious of his life, be wasted, for waste it may be considered, except to a few.

We may venture to say, that education among us cannot long exist in a state like this. The system is *foreign*, and not *American;* there is little in it suited to our peculiar institutions, or becoming our rank in the world.

Colleges, which were monkish establishments, are even with us, and at this time of the day, the only places where what may be called education can be acquired.

Our academies and schools cannot be named as fit resorts to furnish a man with that liberal knowledge, which multitudes among our farmers and mechanics are eager to obtain, and which would render them ornaments of society, and better fitted for places of public usefulness.

The commissioners have already mentioned the pursuits, which they suppose will receive attention in this institution, with the intention, however, of briefly recurring to the mention of some of them.

When this subject was first brought before the legislature, many gentlemen supposed, that nothing but a mere *agricultural school*, was proposed. It already appears, however, that the project embraces a much wider range; that this is only a part, still an important part. How important, will be obvious from a moment's attention to the subject. *Agriculture is a science*, few employments are in their nature more intellectual. The common laborer has, however, in former periods, been a mere machine, performing its work in the same manner for ages. If there have been improvements, it is undeniable, that they have proceeded generally from those, who have had science, capital, leisure and taste for the employment. If these have not reaped the profit, for profit with them is not so much the object, the community have.

At this institution will be exhibited specimens of farming; varieties of plants and seeds will be collected; fruits will be cultivated; labor-saving improvements and machines tried; economical modes practised; a knowledge of the different breeds of animals, their habits, diseases, the mode of rearing and fattening, promulgated; books upon these various subjects will be furnished; and, in fine, every thing communicated, which has a tendency to enable a farmer to practise his art with the greatest profit, success, and pleasure. The community will be filled with intelligent agriculturists, who, in their turn, must become the instructers of others. Thus, if there be capital improvements, they will be eagerly sought for, and not have to contend with those deeply rooted prejudices, which keep things stationary for ages. Then will there pervade the community, an ambitious and honorable spirit of inquiry; men will talk, think, and write about things that are of real value, instead of spending their time idly, or what perhaps is as bad, wasting it upon insignificant discussions, which have little other tendency, than to narrow their minds, embitter their hearts, and show their ignorance. The solitary state of the man, who labors on the land, is the greatest hindrance to his improvement; the society itself, of such an establishment, will be the best of all schools. No man in the country will be so elevated, as not to be willing to be its patron and friend. Our institutions should be such, as to blend together for mutual improvement, all classes. There cannot be fellow-feeling between ignorance and refinement: history shows it, the mind of man demonstrates it: they are oil and water, amalgamation is impossible.

Political Economy.

The commissioners mean to propose nothing for this school, that is showy, expensive, and merely ornamental, but rather that which is useful and profitable, becoming the dignity and prosperous condition of an American citizen. If the time that has been devoted in the learned institutions of the world, to metaphysics, logic, and mystery, had been applied to the study of things that certainly do exist, instead of to those that may be, we should now have citizens better instructed in their duties, better morals, and better government. The labors of Smith, Say, and others, have rendered this a science, new to the world, to be sure, but deeply connected with the prosperity of any people.

Though there are in it, disputed principles, (in what science are there not?) still, in none are there to be found more truths, that are clear to common apprehension. It is the prudence and enlightened conduct of the family, extended to society; it teaches a moral

code to nations; shows them that the liberal virtues which prompt to unembarrassed trade and intercourse, are as profitable upon a great scale, as in their narrow domestic relations; that a good bargain may be good for both parties; that to have a rich commerce, we must have rich customers; that nations are profited by the peaceful policy of each other; that all plans to monopolise the trade of a world, are but the poor devices of hucksters, pedlars, and forestallers; that to enrich our own fields, it is not necessary to spread desolation over those of our neighbors; that war is only to be justified by the law of self-preservation; that when it breaks out, it becomes a great whirlpool, drawing into its abyss of ruin, nations ever so remote from the scene; and that though they may cry 'peace, peace,' there is no peace. In this, as in many other things, it will be found, that our free institutions have prepared our minds before hand, to embrace and understand clearly those principles, which, in other countries, philosophers have with so much difficulty labored to establish. It is now fifty years since Adam Smith wrote his 'Wealth of Nations,' (the 'Wealth of Nations,' it is justly called) and to this day multitudes of the enlightened portion of his countrymen understand lttlie of his principles, much less have they been able to bring them to bear upon existing regulations.

The first edition of Mr. Say's treatise upon this subject, was published at Paris, in the year 1803, since which time, it has been introduced into many of the universities of Europe, and into some in this country; and still, in public discussions in our national hall, these rational enlightened friends of mankind, have been, by way of derision, called philosophers, as though true philosophy, and the principles of business, could, by possibility, be at war with each other. Of the truths of this science, no American citizen in any public station whatever, should be ignorant. Who may not be called to public trusts here? It is because the responsibility of government devolves upon the people, that the people should be well instructed.

The commissioners have thus gone through an enumeration of those things that distinctly belong, in their opinion, to these institutions. Nothing is left for them to do, but to make a few remarks upon some collateral topics.

Every country has its peculiar character: nature perhaps creates it: institutions may greatly modify and add to its improvement. For the foundation of the sober, patient, discreet, sagacious character of our people, we may look to our early history, our rigid climate, stubborn hills, and iron bound coasts. The institutions for learning have done the rest. What nature has denied, ingenuity supplies. How else can we account for the fact, that *we* should have taken the lead in manufactures, when other states are richer,

and in many parts possess the same natural advantages of water power. This is strikingly true, even if we look to the neighborhood of their great towns. The manufactures of New-England will constitute much of its riches and power. Yes, *power*, for a State without riches, cannot have power.

While Watt and Boulton were bringing the steam engine to the perfection it had in their time, and which is said to save to England the labors of two millions of men, the latter was asked by his king, "Well sir, what are you now about?" "Manufacturing that which kings like much of; *power*, your majesty," was the answer. The manufacturing ability of Massachusetts just begins to show itself: that interest is in the bud: many intelligent persons are of opinion, that not a *fiftieth*, and some that not a *hundreth* part of our water power is occupied. Already those who are at the head of these establishments, enjoy salaries, that far exceed the professional emoluments of gentlemen of the first reputation.

In the mechanic department, in this school, our young men will furnish themselves with the preparatory education, necessary in these establishments, and in an economical manner. In most countries individual enterprise is powerless, without capital; but here, a well educated person, with industry, commands it. He finds those who are willing to furnish that, which is better employed by him, than by them. The one has a fortune already accumulated, and only desires an investment of his money in the hands of prudence, economy, and industry. It is by this process, that *here*, credit is a new power, the value of which cannot be fully understood in other countries. The diffusion, therefore, through the State, of that knowledge that is best calculated to call out the ingenuity of our youth, in the various departments of mechanical and manufacturing business, is of the greatest importance to a State like Massachusetts. It was said of the father of our country, that after the revolution, when the scene of trial had passed by, and good humor prevailed, he asked in a laughing mood, a native of our State, "What have you, in New-England, gained by this eight years war; you seemed to me to be as well off before; *we* can enjoy *trade; we* have rice, tobacco, and cotton." "Sir," said his companion in arms, "*we* have *heads*, and *hands;* we had heads and hands before, but our *hands* were tied behind our backs."

Massachusetts, in deciding this question, will do well to consider what is now passing in the same way in other countries, and in various parts of this.

In the year 1823, a meeting was called in London, (in that country which had the honor of giving birth to Boulton, to Watt, to Arkwright,) for the purpose of establishing an institution for the instruction of her artisans in mechanic science. At the first meet-

ing, some of the most eminent men in the country attended, such as Dr. Gregory, Dr. Lushington, and others. Mr. Brougham not having it in his power to be at the meeting, sent an apology, with a handsome donation, in favor of the objects proposed. Dr. Birkbeck addressed the meeting, and stated, that an institution similar to that then proposed for London, had been set on foot by him and other gentlemen, at Glasgow, in Scotland, twenty years before. That when the plan of it was maturing, all treated the idea of instructing the common mechanics in the principles of science, as the dream of enthusiasm; that it was predicted that if the mechanics were invited, they would not come; if they did come, that they would not listen; and if they did listen, they could not comprehend. That all this, however, was falsified in the result, and that the institution in Glasgow, was in the most flourishing condition. At the meeting mentioned, in London, the Mechanics' Institute was established, with this as its first principle, *that the mechanics should pay for their instruction.*

The managers now publish a regular magazine, which is full of scientific information. The example of Glasgow and London has given excitement to the country; and similar institutions are established, or proposed, in many other cities. Now it must be observed, that this system of instruction is for the *common mechanics*, the *working men*, the *day laborers;* in the language of Dr. Birkbeck, "the unwashed artificers." Of men like these, Dr. Birkbeck states, that there were then in the society at Glasgow, one thousand. We have mentioned these facts as among the most interesting incidents of the day, and to show the deep conviction which appears everywhere, of the necessity of extending knowledge to a class of men which has heretofore, in other countries, been doomed to every degradation. The question for us now is, shall we suffer Europe to march before us in that career of improvement, which we have claimed as peculiarly our own? There are indications that a better spirit begins to prevail.

In the Geneva College, in the State of New-York, the trustees propose, as appears from a circular, dated March 1st, 1824, to establish, if the consent of the Regents of the University can be obtained, a course of instruction, as follows:

1st. Under the English Professor, the pupil shall be taught, the philosophy of the English language, geography, rhetoric, history, English composition, moral philosophy, logic, metaphysics, evidences of christianity, and shall practise public speaking.

2d. Under the Professor of Mathematics, he shall study geometry, trigonometry, land surveying, theoretical and practical mensuration, generally; navigation, levelling, with reference to canals and aqueducts; hydraulics, as applied to machinery driven by water power,

and steam power; natural philosophy and astronomy, with the use of mathematical instruments; the principles of architectural proportions, and bridge building, drawing of plans, &c.

3d. Under the Professor of Chemistry, shall be studied, chemistry, the principles of dyeing, bleaching, &c. the nature and use of different earths and soils, the fertilising qualities and effects of different substances; mineralogy, and botany: that this course of study shall embrace two years; at the expiration of which, diplomas, usual in colleges, shall be given.

The commissioners are not informed whether this plan has been adopted. In the same State, through the munificence of Mr. Van Rensselaer of Albany, there has been established at Troy, a school with the same general design, as that now proposed. In Derby, in the State of Connecticut, there is one. The Gardiner Lyceum, the honor of the establishment of which belongs to him whose name it bears, is too well known to require particular mention here.

The commissioners have thus presented their views upon the subject. In deciding upon it, we must remember, that the eyes of the world are upon these *free republics;* that whatever we do, is a subject of observation and comment; that millions of beings unknown to us, are concerned in the result. To what degree of refinement the mass of mankind can be carried, is yet to be shown.

By the best cultivation of ourselves, let us manifest to wretched man every where, what he also may become, under the same discipline. God has doubtless set us on high, for an example. It is time that we should understand, that it is *knowledge*, and not *punishment*, that is to improve our moral condition: let men be brought to the conviction at once, that their penal codes, curious devices for punishment, their penitentiaries, stepping mills, and other artful contrivances to inflict suffering, cannot be relied on to deter men from crime. That when gross offences have once been committed, there is little hope of amendment ; that the subject of them, so far as the power of man extends, is a dead loss to society, and seems to be so to nature.

In that sound and right instruction, which prepares the mind to love virtue, which makes man a religious creature, thus connecting him with God, and with good beings throughout the universe, there is every thing to hope, and to press us on to all possible exertion.

The commissioners now close their labors in furtherance of the objects of the foregoing Report, and in conformity with the design of the General Court, in their appointment, by respectfully submitting the draft of two bills.

THEODORE SEDGWICK,
L. M. PARKER,
JAMES SAVAGE.

BOSTON, Jan. 9th, 1826.

[Note A.]

Since the Report was prepared, further inquiry and considerable personal observation of the *common schools*, have induced the commissioners to make additional remarks on that head. They would fail in their duty, should they withhold from the legislature their decided opinion, that the public is not fully aware of the very defective state of the common schools; and their conviction, that the honor of the State, its duty as the guardian of the poor and least informed classes, imperatively demand an immediate attention to them.

They are satisfied that in those schools, there is no improvement corresponding with the state of society in other respects, or with the successful efforts made in education by the well informed and richer classes.

On the contrary, that for the last twenty years, there has been no improvement worthy of mention, when compared with the great advances made by society in general. Leaving out of view any notice of what *might* be taught in those schools, and which is not at present, it may be said with truth, that in the most common branches of elementary knowledge, many of the teachers are wholly unqualified. How can it be otherwise?

Many of these teachers receive no greater compensation than the wages of *common laborers*.

Certainly such a recompense will never induce men to qualify themselves for the occupation of school-keeping, one which requires judgement, discretion, sobriety, and dignity of character, united with great experience. To commit fifty or sixty children to the care of a young man of eighteen or twenty years of age, in the common mode of instruction, and to call this *education*, seems an insult to the good sense of the times.

There are facts enough to show, both in Europe and in this country, that the Lancasterian system has been introduced not only in the common schools, but in those in which the *classics* and the *sciences* are taught, with great success. This is true of the High-School in Edinburgh; and one of the commissioners can bear testimony to the same fact, in regard to the High-School in New-York, under the care of Professor Griscom. The country is deeply indebted to this gentleman for his efforts upon the subject, and particularly for having in an excellent work, lately published in New-York, clearly set forth the merits of that system. To what extent it *may* or *ought to be* introduced, into the country part of the State, in populous villages, and the neighborhoods of extensive manufactories, it is not intended to express an opinion here, but should be a

subject of serious inquiry, and generally how far it may be made applicable, (if at all,) where the residence of children is remote from each other.

One of its chief excellences is its *economy:* for the same money vastly more may be obtained.

In other respects, the system has its advantages and its disadvantages: of the former, the most striking can be made obvious to those only, who have witnessed its operation. The subject in all points of view is worthy of investigation.

In respect to the common schools, Mr. James G. Carter has addressed to William Prescott, Esq. several letters which are in print, in which the importance of the subject is pressed upon the public, in a manner to deserve its most serious attention.

Massachusetts, in what she may now do for the common schools, will have the benefit of the experience of her sister States, together with the lights furnished by the progress of education elsewhere. Nothing upon this subject can be expected to be thoroughly done, till the facts in regard to the present state of the schools are carefully collected, together with every other fact, that may throw light upon it; and this by some person or persons, who shall be responsible for presenting to the legislature a system deserving of its consideration. A crude and undigested one would be unworthy of the times.

The commissioners, as they have before stated, do think, that if the proposed institution should accomplish no other object, it would well repay the bounty of the State, in becoming a *nursery for schoolmasters;* and to effect that object, they would recommend, that a department be organised in the school, for the express purpose of qualifying in the most economical way, such persons as shall resort to it, with the view of obtaining instruction for that occupation.

BOSTON MONITORIAL SCHOOL.

(Continued from p. 80.)

NOTE 1.—Page 32.

The system of *mutual instruction* owes its origin to Lancaster and Bell, two Englishmen, or, as the French say, to Paulet a Frenchman, who is known to have systematically employed his pupils in teaching each other, as long ago as the year 1785. Whether the Englishmen got their hints from him is doubtful; for the attempt died with its author, who would probably never have been mentioned again, had not the wonderful success of the system ren-

dered the honor of its invention an object of national ambition. Dr. Bell informs us that the large number of pupils in his school at Madras, obliged him to employ assistants. These were, at first, adults, well acquainted with the particular branch they were required to teach; but he found it impossible to produce that concert of action, which is indispensable in large schools; and, as an experiment, he dismissed the adults, and employed the older pupils, whose conduct and operations he could completely control. The experiment succeeded to his entire satisfaction. While this was doing in the East Indies, Joseph Lancaster, moved by the gross ignorance of the lower classes in England, proposed a system, in which the saving of expense was the most important consideration. Bell's school, like ours, was composed of children, whose parents were more anxious to procure the *best* than the cheapest system; but Lancaster proposed to educate the poor and destitute; and, as he was himself a poor man, this was to be done at the least possible expense. We cannot enumerate all the modes by which this end was attained, and therefore shall only mention two; viz. the employment of monitors, by whose assistance 400 or 500 children were easily taught by one master, and the use of cards or sheets printed in very large type, instead of books. If a book contained 100 pages, each page was pasted on a board, and hung up against the wall; so that a class of ten children could stand around, and read it. As one card was enough for one class, a single book of 100 pages was sufficient for 1000 pupils; the classes exchanging the cards as fast as they had read them. The same economy was used in every other department of teaching. This is the system which has made such unexampled strides towards becoming universal. The system of Pestalozzi, not less valuable, is more philosophical, and very different. Embracing the popular theory of ideas, Pestalozzi wished to illustrate every thing to the senses; and charmed with the philosophy of Bacon,—who reasoned only from facts, and carried illustration by the side of theory, he wished every child to begin with the elements of knowledge, and advance no faster than he understood the facts and propositions presented to his mind. This system, requiring unusual information, labor, and perseverance in the teacher, it may well be supposed could not rapidly spread. But, in the hands of its founder, it obtained the admiration of the learned and philosophical, who flocked to Switzerland in thousands to witness its operations. We look forward with confidence to the time when a better acquaintance with the science of teaching, and a more accurate knowledge of the nature and operations of the youthful mind, will show that this system is fitted for general use; and that Pestalozzi, far from being a visionary enthusiast, was only born a century too soon. We believe that

ours was the first attempt to unite,—however imperfectly,—the systems of Lancaster and Pestalozzi. The former we adopted in the full persuasion,—a persuasion founded on the experiments made in Europe,—that it was a more industrious, orderly, and pleasing, as well as a cheaper mode; and the latter, because the prevailing modes not only appeared to us very superficial, but to have begun at the wrong end. The recent establishment of the New-York High-School, on a plan not unlike ours, encourages us to hope that we have not mistaken the right course. We cannot better conclude this note than with a recommendation to our patrons of a little volume on the subject of Monitorial Instruction, lately published by Dr. Griscom, the enlightened Principal of the school just mentioned. Besides an ingenious address from this gentleman, at the opening of the New-York High-School, it contains more valuable information in regard to the history of the monitorial system, its success throughout the world, and the opinions of the learned of Europe in regard to it, than can be found in any other book with which we are acquainted. Indeed, it is in consequence of our having seen this book, that our report is chiefly confined to the *details* of our mode of instruction.

NOTE 2.—Page 32.

Besides the various manuscript lessons used in the school, the following books have been published by the instructer.

1. *A Catechism of English Grammar.* The object of this little work is to simplify the grammar of our language, and produce such a practical application of the leading principles as will not only impress them upon the memory, but explain them to the mind. Two years' use of the book has proved, that, although susceptible of greater simplicity, and better arrangement, it is sufficient to render the study pleasing to children. No child in the school has ever been known to use a dictionary, to ascertain the part of speech under which a word ought to be classed.

2. *An Analytical Spelling Book.* This was calculated to lead the child to a correct orthography, by a progress easy and gradual, —an arrangement which presents no intricacy, and a classification, which reduces the irregularities of English orthography, to an inconsiderable number. This classification is very minute. In common spelling books the words are so mixed that the irregularities seem ten times more numerous than they really are. On a training field, when twenty companies, each in diffent uniform, are scattered and in confusion, it is difficult to form a correct idea of the number of dresses or men; but when all the companies are ranged in line, one glance of the eye is sufficient to ascertain the number of companies, and a slight examination will enable any

child to distinguish the uniforms, and count the soldiers. This book has been adopted in the Primary Schools of Boston.

3. *The First Part of Practical Geography.* This most important part of geography is merely *Topographical.* Although a small book, and calculated for small children, it contains all the matter of the largest school geographies that children can recollect. The book contains directions for its use, and its complete success has authorised the publication of a *second* part, which is in preparation.

4. *A Treatise on Linear Drawing.* The introduction of drawing as a branch of study in the afternoon school, and the great utility of some acquaintance with this subject, in the delineation of maps, induced the instructer to translate a small treatise which had been well received in France. After using it sometime in manuscript, it was at last printed. This book is calculated for general use, and should be in the hands of every child, and it is hoped that ere long it will be introduced into our public schools, where, although nearly all the boys are to become mechanics, no provision has yet been made for their instruction in drawing,—a branch of study almost as necessary to them as reading and writing; if they are ever to become respectable in any mechanical employment.

The above books, although intended for schools of mutual instruction, are not in the least degree unfitted for use in schools on any other plan. They may be obtained at Cummings, Hilliard & Co's. bookstore in Boston.

NOTE 3.—Page 40.

Amongst the apparatus already purchased, are the following important articles, all of which are of the first quality.

A powerful electrical machine, insulated stool, &c.

A powerful battery, with 30 or 40 instruments for the various electrical experiments.

A galvanic battery, of the newest construction, containing 50 sets of plates, 15 inches square.

Various instruments for galvanic and electro-magnetic experiments.

A large double barrelled airpump, with brass hemispheres, and various other apparatus for pneumatic experiments.

Various optical models of telescopes, microscopes, human eyes, &c. the rays of light being represented by colored silks, &c.

A compound microscope of the most modern and powerful construction.

A solar microscope and apparatus.

A camera obscura—15 inch concave mirror.

Phantasmagoria, of the latest construction, with glass sliders, containing a complete set of astronomical diagrams, and many fancy subjects.

Optical, mechanical, hydrostatic, and mathematical paradoxes, and various other amusing instruments.

Various glass hydrostatic apparatus.

Glass pumps of various constructions.

Hydrostatic bellows. Syphons of various sizes, with jets:

Pullies, wheels, levers, screws, and other mechanical instruments.

Vertical and horizontal orreries, diagrams, celestial charts, and other astronomical apparatus.

Globes, and a very extensive collection of maps, magnets, and articles for magnetic amusements.

A library of several hundred volumes, is already collected; and an appropriation made for its gradual increase.

In chemistry several valuable articles are prepared; although no instruction has yet been given in this branch.

While on the subject of apparatus, it may be useful to mention that contributions of minerals, shells, engravings, or any article which can in any way illustrate the studies pursued in the school, will be gratefully received. There is hardly a family in which such articles may not be found, doing little or no good. We think we have done our duty by informing the possessors where they may be really serviceable. In our plan of instruction is embraced every thing which comes under the head of useful knowledge; and, of course, few donations can be foreign to our purpose.

Of the 75 scholars present, on the 15th of January 1826, the ages are as follows.

2	from	4	to 5	10	from	11	to 12
3	···	5	to 6	9	···	12	to 13
4	···	6	to 7	3	···	14	to 15
6	···	7	to 8	1	···	15	to 16
10	···	8	to 9	5	···	16	to 17
12	···	9	to 10	1	···	17	to 18
9	···	10	to 11				

Constitution and Rules of the Monitorial School.

A PROSPECTUS of this school was published in the spring of 1823, in which the object of its founders was stated, in as definite a manner as circumstances would permit. This paper was circulated among the friends of improvement; and a meeting of gentlemen, interested in the subject, was held at the Exchange Coffee-House,

on the 16th May of the same year. The meeting was opened by an able address from George Ticknor, Esq., explanatory of the object in view, and the general advantages of the system of mutual instruction. The society was then organised, and the following gentlemen were elected;—viz.

JAMES SAVAGE, President.
JONATHAN PHILLIPS, Vice-President,
LEWIS TAPPAN Treasurer,
JOHN S. FOSTER, Secretary.

The same gentlemen still continue in office; except Mr. Tappan, who, in retiring, gave place, as treasurer, to Francis J. Oliver, Esq.

The society was incorporated in June 1824. Its stock is divided into 100 shares of $ 20;—most of which are sold.

The school was opened with eight scholars, under the care of Mr. Wm. B. Fowle, Oct. 14, 1823.

The *terms* of *tuition*, to proprietors or stockholders, are

For children under 7 years of age,	$ 6	Per quarter.
.... over 7 and under 9	8	
.... 9 11	10	
.... 11	12	

To non-proprietors an addition of one quarter is made; and the terms to them are,

For children under 7	$ 7,50	Per quarter.
from 7 to 9	10,	
from 9 to 11	12,50	
over 11	15,	

The trustees have erected a convenient building, 80 feet by 30 feet, in Washington Court. The centre of the building forms a school-room: the east end, a dressing-room: the west end, two rooms for library and apparatus.

In fixing the rate of tuition, the trustees not only intended to cover the necessary expenses, but to provide a fund for the purchase of such furniture, apparatus, &c. as might be needed. The fund raised by the sale of shares, has been expended in the erection of the building and appurtenances. The surplus income of the school has been expended in furnishing 100 very neat and convenient desks, of which each scholar has one entirely under her control, and the purchase of books, apparatus, &c. of some of which a list has already been given. As the building, furniture, and apparatus, belong to the proprietors, it must be evident that the terms of tuition are extremely low; a large part of the money paid for tuition being merely an investment in stock under their own control. The building is in a retired but central situation; and the comforts

and conveniences of the school-room are not equalled by those of any room that has fallen under our observation.

A fund is appropriated for the purchase of books and stationary for the use of the scholars. These articles are in the hands of suitable monitors, who deliver them to such children as need them, and charge the wholesale price for them. At the end of each quarter these monitors make a return to the treasurer of the amount delivered each child, which amount is included in the quarter bills. It is perfectly optional, however, with the parents to purchase of the trustees, or furnish their children in any other way. Two monitors have the care of the library, and deliver books to the pupils, once a week. No additional charge is made for the use of the library, apparatus, and fuel, or for instruction in the afternoon school, which was not in operation when the terms were fixed.

REVIEWS.

Elements of History, ancient and modern, with Historical Charts. By J. E. Worcester. Boston, 1826. pp. 324.

An Historical Atlas, containing 1. *A Chart of General History.*—2. *of Ancient Chronology.*—3. *Modern Chronology.*—4. *European Sovereigns.*—5. *Chronological, Genealogical, and Historical Chart of England.*—6. *of France.*—7. *American History.*—8. *Biography.*—9. *Mythology. By J. E. Worcester.* Boston, 1826.

Mr. Worcester, whose excellent works in the department of geography, have done so much for the improvement of that branch of education, has here rendered a still more valuable service to young students of history. Many of our readers have no doubt felt dissatisfied, either as parents or as teachers, with the common routine of historical education. One or two defective methods of instruction is prevalent. The pupil is either expected to 'recite' with perfect verbal fidelity, indeed, but with little regard to the train of thought or the course of the narrative, long paragraphs of words, about the meaning of which he is seldom troubled. As for the collateral branches of biography, mythology, and chronology, the impression seems to be that the study of history acquires a desirable simplicity, when relieved of such encumbrances! Another plan is to break up the continuity of historical narration, by reducing a lesson to fractional parts, and employing for this purpose the convenient form of question and answer,—by means of which, half the toil and trouble of the method just mentioned, is devolved on the

teacher, who faithfully recites the question printed for him, and receives the recitation of an equally faithful and unmeaning answer, in return.

Most parents who put themselves to the trouble of trying the value of these methods of what is falsely called instruction, and ask their children at home, a plain fire-side question on the substance of a lesson, find how little is actually understood, and how little is really gained, in either of the ways we have described.

After several years trial of various methods, the following seems to the writer of this article, to be the most successful way of making history an intelligible, practical, and interesting branch of education. In the first stages of instruction, abandon entirely the use of books, and resort to the simple and pleasing method of oral information. The teacher's first duty, on this plan, is to make himself familiar with all the details of the history of the city, town, or village in which he teaches, and to take particular notice of every spot or object which is linked with an historical association,—with the occurrence of any remarkable event. The second step in this practical method of teaching, is, to carry the young learners to as many as possible of these places or objects, and to fasten on the youthful mind a correct and abiding impression of them, as connected with the event which gives them their celebrity or their interest. Here are several great points gained:—the health of the pupils is benefited by the fresh open air, and the invigorating exercise of walking;—the corporeal effort and enjoyment produce an active and excited and happy state of mind;—every thing wears the aspect of reality, of nature, and of life;—curiosity is excited to the highest pitch, and receives its amplest gratification;—from the living voice of the teacher, the ear drinks in instruction with delight, in the very scene of the strange or romantic or glorious action which has left its indelible impress on the spot;—the teacher, too, loses the character of the taskmaster, and becomes the living and venerated oracle of his young circle of listeners,—he becomes one of their sources of pleasure, and is loved accordingly. These results are brilliant;—but they are not imaginary: they are those which took place in the early lessons received in childhood by the individual who writes this article, and which he has had the happiness of seeing realised in the young listeners to his own words.

Here, a person who is unacquainted with this method of instruction, may start an objection. But what if there is no high, romantic, and kindling interest in the scene where you teach? The simple answer is; it is not necessary that there should be. The interesting details of humble adventure, the narrative of domestic life, the tale of the early settlers,—all of which have a poetic charm for the young,—will suit the same purpose, will enkindle

curiosity, secure attention, and convert the study of history, from a task or a book-dream, into a pleasing reality.—Another objection may be that, with young pupils, this method of instruction is necessarily circumscribed:—they cannot walk or travel so far as to embrace a very wide circle of classical or historic ground. Granted: still, every village has the little story of its early settlement, and its spots or objects noted for something which took place in days gone by; and should there be but one such spot or object, it will serve, if we begin with it, to give the study of history the aspect of reality. For every event read in a wider circle of historical narrative, will by association be made to bear a resemblance to this. The young pupil will be made to realise that such things *were*.

After such a beginning, the teacher transfers, as far as he can, the same method to the study of the history of the county or state in which his pupils reside, and afterwards to that of their native country. Geography, or rather topography, being substituted for a personal visit to the scene of the narrative; and the instructer not furnishing his pupils with books, but still retaining them a listening circle to the words which fall from his lips. The teacher may now cross the ocean; and with the additional and fascinating aid of chronology, biography, mythology, and antiquities, carry (mentally) his little groupe along with him, and instruct and delight them with the romantic history of the old world.

One word on the advantages of this method of instruction, before we return to the works under review.

Early instruction should minister to youthful happiness. The most unpleasant scene in human life is that of a teacher, inflicting corporeal and mental pain on a young being who is innocent of crime; and who, but for unintelligible and unmanageable lessons, or rather, as they are happily denominated, *tasks*, and their horrid consequences—might be happy in the gay morning of his life, enjoying the warmth and the brilliancy of his own delighted feelings. The method of teaching which has been suggested, does not bring over the mind of childhood a single cloud or shadow:—it renders, in fact, more brilliant the sunshine of glad emotion, which is the birthright of the young.

Another advantage of a happy union of the practical and the pleasing in instruction, is, the light in which it places the teacher. To this circumstance we have already adverted; and we leave it to speak for itself, in the situation in which it is there mentioned.

Perhaps the most important results of such instruction, are the discipline it silently gives the mind; the attachment it creates to the business of mental application; the force which it imparts to the power of attention,—the strength which it infuses into the memory, —the delightful and profitable occupation which it furnishes for the

imagination,—that most active of all the faculties of the infantine or juvenile mind; the preference which it produces for reality and fact, over fiction and fancy; the practical spirit which it breathes into the habits of the susceptible mind of youth; the useful information which it conveys respecting that department of history in which the learner is most concerned,—the history of his native scenes; the thorough preparation which it constitutes for a wider range of historical reading; as well as the deep-rooted attachment which it creates for the scenes of early life.

We may mention here another mistake in the common method of teaching this branch of education,—that of beginning with general instead of particular history, and of commencing at the creation of the world, instead of tracing the subject backward from the present hour.

To some of our readers, the attempt to trace the course of events upward in history, may appear strange or whimsical. But, to obviate such an impression, we have only to ask how history is taught at the fireside, in the oral communications of the parent. Even if he could trace his pedigree from Noah downward, he does not choose to begin family history so far back. He relates to his listening and delighted children his own life and adventures, —then something of their grandfather's. One of the young groupe now ventures, perhaps, a question reaching into the dim antiquity of his great grandfather's times: the natural progress of the mind, in this case, is up, not down the stream. All doubt, however, about the propriety of adopting such a method with young learners, will, we think, be removed by a single attentive perusal of the historical department of Blair's Mother's Catechism. Our philosophical readers we would remind of this fact simply, that such a method of studying history keeps true to the acknowledged propriety of proceeding from the known to the unknown. That the popular arrangement of histories for the young is completely the reverse, we need not say.

We have strayed far, we must confess, from Mr. Worcester's publications. But our grand object in this journal is usefulness; and if we sometimes sacrifice a minor propriety to our leading purpose, our readers will, we trust, bear with us.

The history and the atlas before us, will, we have no doubt, form the commencement of a new era in this department of education; if they are rightly used. After what we have written in this article, it will hardly be necessary to say to our readers, that what seems to us the proper place of these excellent works, is the close of historical education in schools and academies.

Used at this stage of education, they will be invaluable helps to the understanding and the memory. But if injudiciously thrust by

the teacher into the earliest course of study, they will be found injurious; as all general histories must necessarily be, in such a situation. We mean that they will enable the learner to discourse of the outlines of ancient and modern history, while they do not give him even a glimpse of the events which constitute the oral or the written record of the actions of his fathers. For this result, however, it would be unfair to blame the author who has furnished works so excellently adapted to usefulness in their sphere.

To speak more particularly of the merits of Mr. Worcester's labors:—his Elements are a highly valuable work, calculated to do away the loose and vague manner of teaching and learning, which has hitherto prevailed, and to supply the means of communicating and acquiring definite, connected, and practical ideas on this branch of knowledge. A general history like this, being suited to aid the pupil in a review of his acquisitions, rather than to introduce him to the subject, affords less room for the method of teaching which we have suggested. Still, the uniting of the atlas with the elements, tends to render the study of history much more practical and interesting than it has hitherto been; and a judicious application of geography, to aid the pupil's progress in the history, will be found to secure many of the benefits of the system we have recommended. Mr. Worcester's Elements are carefully adapted to the young. Tytler, though, on the whole, a comprehensive and instructive author, is, in some places, too brief and cursory; in others, too philosophically profound for the youthful reader. Mr. Worcester is more just in the apportioning of his pages. He gives due space to every thing important; while he judiciously dwells but a short time on the fabulous and the obscure, and indulges but little in philosophic speculation. There is thus a symmetry and completeness in his work, which make it acceptable to the teacher. The style, too, is more simple than that of most manuals of this kind; and this is a point of no trifling value to the pupil.

Had the Elements appeared without the atlas, we should have thought the work too brief for the subject. The author's intention however, is, that the two books should be used in conjunction; and as he has given express directions for the teacher to adopt this plan in instruction, we regard the Elements as filling up the outlines in the atlas, and as inseparable from it, and both works as designed for the purpose of review, rather than of initiatory instruction.

In the general character of the work, there are many traces of laborious research, and careful comparison. Candor and impartiality are equally conspicuous.

But we have left ourselves little room to speak of that part of the work which is comparatively original, and is entitled to the

warmest commendation,—we mean the historical atlas. The use of charts in the study of history, has hitherto, been rare. Of the benefit likely to attend it, however, there can be but one opinion in the minds of those whose memories can reach back to the time when geography was taught without maps.

The atlas we consider not merely as a thing valuable in itself, from its bringing under a glance of the eye the whole surface of history, but from its interwearing the study of this branch of education with that of chronology, biography, and mythology.

All who are now on the stage of adult life, must, we think, be quite prepared to admit that, with all the skill of their teachers, and all the accuracy of their books in this department of instruction, they feel the want of some expedients by which their knowledge of the subject might have been associated more intimately with the connection of its parts, and with its collateral branches of learning; so as to have occupied a larger and better defined space in the mind, and to have been more ready at the call of recollection. These advantages Mr. Worcester has put fully in the power of the rising members of the community.

For the benefit of readers at a distance, into whose hands these works may not yet have fallen, we transcribe a part of the description and illustration of the chart of history.

'1. This Chart affords means of facilitating the study of history, similar to what are afforded by maps in the study of Geography. It supposes time to be flowing, in a stream, from the left hand to the right; and represents, at one view, the principal states and empires which have existed in the world, together with their origin, revolutions, decline, and fall.

'2. Those who may make use of this Chart, are supposed to be conversant with the common principles of geography, and to understand the relative situation and importance of the different countries which are represented. It will be readily seen, that the spaces which represent the several countries on the Chart, do not give any idea of the *extent* of those countries, but of the revolutions which they have undergone, and in some degree, of their comparative importance in history. Those parts of the world which are almost unknown in history, (as for example, all *Africa* except Egypt and the Barbary states,) are not represented at all on the Chart.

'3. In the arrangement of the countries, the geographical order is generally followed. It unavoidably happens, that owing to conquests and other acquisitions, the several parts of an empire or state, cannot always be placed in a contiguous position. To remedy this inconvenience, recourse has been had to coloring the different parts of the same empire with the same color, by means of which, the eye can embrace, at one view, the various territories, of which it was, at any given period, composed. The colors fit for this purpose are so few, that

a repetition of some of them has been necessary; but they are such as will not be likely to mislead the student.

'4. The whole scale comprises a period of two thousand seven hundred years; namely, from the year B. C. 800, to the end of the 19th century. This interval is divided into twenty-seven equal parts, by *perpendicular lines*, extending from the top to the bottom, each space between the lines denoting the period of 100 years. The several countries, whose history is delineated, are represented in spaces formed by the *horizontal lines*. By carrying the eye horizontally along the Chart, the principal revolutions which a state has undergone, will be seen.

'5. To ascertain the date of any event in the history of a country represented on the Chart, add the figures at the line denoting the event or revolution to the next century, if *after* Christ, on the *left* hand; and if *before* Christ, on the *right* hand; and the sum will give the date before or after the Christian era, as the case may be. Thus it appears by the Chart, that the *Babylonian empire* ended, and the *Persian* began, B. C. 536; that *Macedonia* was reduced to subjection to the Romans B. C. 168, and *Greece* B C. 146: also that the kingdom of the *Lombards* was incorporated with that of the *Franks* A. D. 774; that the kingdom of *England*, under the Saxons, commenced in 827; that *Ireland* was added to it in 1172; *Scotland*, in 1603; that the *English* held possessions in *France* from the year 1066 to 1558. The *slant lines* denote, generally, the gradual conquest of a country; as for example the conquest of *Britain* by the *Romans*, was commenced A. D. 43, but not completed till 84.

'6. By inspecting the Chart, and carrying the eye vertically, from the top to the bottom, one may see what states and empires were flourishing at any given era.'

The atlas, we are happy to understand, is to be had separately from the Elements; so that pupils who have made use of any other history, may finish this branch of their education, with the aid of the charts.

The American Speaker, or Exercises in Rhetoric; being a Selection of Speeches, Dialogues, and Poetry, from the best American and English sources, suitable for Recitation. Boston, 1826. 12mo. pp. 444.

A natural and impressive manner of speaking is, in every stage of society, a personal advantage which is highly valued. The means of acquiring it are partially furnished in every country; and in

none can these facilities be more desirable than in one like ours, where every active and useful citizen is expected to take a part, in the conduct of public affairs, and consequently to speak sometimes of the common interests, in presence of his fellow-citizens.

In the United States as well as in England, the practice of declamation at school and college, has been deemed the best preparation for the discharge of this branch of public business. The exercise of declaiming, accordingly forms a part of the prescribed course of early education, in all good schools; and usually a set time is appropriated for this purpose, to every class and every pupil.

The portion of time thus assigned is reduced, however, to a mere fraction, when it comes to be distributed among the scholars of a numerous school, or the students of a college. Two very unpropitious results are inseparable from this unfortunate state of things. The pupil, if he is conscious of inferiority in this species of exercise, comforts himself with the certainty of a long and happy exemption from this unpleasant part of his duties; if he is conscious, on the other hand, of excelling, he performs this exercise remissly, because it devolves on him so seldom, that there is not an adequate and steady excitement kept up in his feelings towards it. As for the teacher, he has commonly so many pupils to 'hear' within a limited time, that he has it not in his power to bestow on every individual, that attention which is required.—Add to all this the want of good books of instruction, and even of the necessary selections of suitable pieces; and it is idle to ask why so little is accomplished in this branch of education—why the young man who is entering on professional life, appears commonly to such disadvantage in all the externals of oratory; or why men who are endowed with the noblest gifts of heaven, are fain to blush or blunder through a public address, as a dreaded and disagreeable task, or to deliver themselves in a style which bears no manner of relation to the thoughts and feelings which they utter.

A great mind, it is true, will force its way through every difficulty; and even the very unwieldiness of its movements and its expression, may be associated in the imagination of an audience, with the idea of gigantic proportions, or ungovernable force. This circumstance, however, can never be pleaded as an apology, but by the favored few who are conscious of such powers.

In most cases, certainly, an impressive and efficient delivery is an accomplishment purchased at the usual expense of time and industry; and the true policy of judicious superintendents of youth, is, to provide their charge, as early as possible, with the best means of making this desirable acquisition. That the common

provisions of instruction in this department are not adequate to the importance of the object, is universally acknowledged.

No one in our day will be found hardy enough to advocate the painful and laborious preparation of ancient rhetorical discipline. Still, it is admitted there is something—there is much that may be done, even in these times, by proper training in early life.

One preparatory measure which seems indispensable to improvement in this branch of education, is, not to force the superintendence of it on persons who are possessed of perhaps no qualification for the office. A man may be an unrivalled linguist, a profound mathematician, an expert and successful teacher in every other branch, but absolutely incompetent in this. He may be entirely deficient in that force of imagination, that warmth of feeling, that versatility of mind, that control of his voice, and that management of his person, without which, all his other talents and acquirements are nothing to the purpose.

It is, we think, a pleasing indication of the improvement in public opinion and taste on this subject, that such impressions begin to be felt; and that, in our large cities, at least, the patronage bestowed on this branch of education, apart from others, is sufficient to induce individuals to devote themselves to the business of teaching it. Another indication of improvement is the readiness of parents to provide their children with the assistance of the best books in this department.

Of these, Mr. Fowle's, is certainly one which will have a very favorable influence in its sphere.

The natural aversion of the young to frequent repetition, in any thing, makes it peculiarly necessary that, in matters of taste and feeling, they should not be wearied and disgusted in their exercises by the incessant reiteration of the same subject. Besides, the teacher, no less than the pupil, requires occasional relief by novelty. Without this aid both become dull and remiss,—no ordinary misfortune in a thing which depends much on the state of the animal spirits.

The American Speaker, therefore, is a book which we are glad to see: it adds much that is new and interesting to the previous stock; and, although all the compositions from which the extracts are made, are by no means of a classical order, they all possess that vivacity of character which is a great point in producing animated delivery,—the very soul of good speaking.

Mr. Fowle has not prefixed to his selection any of the common rules of elocution. This we think an omission. Many of the rules and directions usually laid down in the introduction to such books, are, it is true, infinitely worse than none. This circumstance, however, cannot justify the neglect of all rules.

The difficulty of obtaining access to any good work on this subject, is perhaps a better and a sufficient apology for the want of preliminary instruction. The only book which contains any thing worth transcribing on this subject, is Austin's Chironomia*—a work by the tutor of some of the best orators of Ireland. The expensive illustrations of this publication, might be presented in a cheaper form; and its few undisputed principles and excellent rules, might easily be extracted and transferred to the pages of an elementary work. An arrangement such as this, would, we think, add much to the value of a second edition of the Speaker.

A New Method of teaching the art of Book-keeping. By J. Irvine Hitchcock. Philadelphia, 1823.

Mr. Hitchcock's method is ingenious, and, in some particulars, quite novel. It is a bold deviation from the dull routine established by the old systems. Book-keeping used to be treated as a dark and mysterious subject, to the knowledge of which the learner must worry his way through a world of puzzling and perplexity. The new method is plain and intelligible: the subject is simplified as far as possible: no intricacy remains, but that which is inseparable from the complicated nature of some mercantile transactions. A boy of fourteen may now take up this branch of education, with a rational hope of making as much progress in it, as in any other.

Mr. H's work is, we think, highly creditable to him, both as an accountant and a teacher. We ought to say more. It speaks favorably for our country, in this branch of instruction. The most popular English treatise on this subject is perhaps Morison's, a work of deserved reputation for its practical character. Compared with Hitchcock's, however, it will be found inferior in simplicity of plan, and in the quantity of useful exercise.

As a school-book, Mr. H's publication seems to us to possess a decided superiority over the various works on book-keeping, which, in several years' practice in teaching, we have had occasion to use; and we would warmly recommend it to other instructers.

Mr. H's plan being chiefly original, and the form of his work making it impossible to introduce extracts, it may not be amiss to mention some of the peculiar advantages of his system.—It furnishes the learn-

* There are but few copies of this work accessible in this country. One is to be found, however, in the miscellaneous department of the Atheneum in Boston.

er with a set of entries or a day-book in a printed form, and so saves the labor of copying what it is unnecessary to copy. Those parts of the subject are withheld from the pupil, which it is his business to find out for himself, by the application of the rules which he has learned. Every such part, however, is furnished in a separate book, called a key, which is designed for the use of the teacher, and saves him the toil of examining minutely the work of every pupil—a task which, in a large school, can seldom be thoroughly performed. The study of the whole subject is carefully graduated; the learner being conducted by regular advances from the simpler and easier parts to the more complex and difficult. Accounts are presented, first, as kept by a person trading for himself only; secondly, as kept by a commission merchant; and, thirdly, as in special partnership. It is not its least recommendation that this work is published in a form adapted to the size of most school desks; and the quality of the blank books, as well as the neat style in which they are finished, is much to the credit of the publishers.

In executing his plan the author seems constantly to have aimed at perspicuity of style, and plainness of expression in definitions. He has taken great pains to adapt his whole system to the minds of the young. His work is, as every school-book ought to be, copious in explanation and in practical exercises. It enables the pupil to go as far as possible in instructing himself, it incites him to activity, and gratifies him with the consciousness of improving to a great extent by independent effort.

In the existing practice of some mercantile houses, the pupil might find some things at variance with the new method. But, as the great merit of the system on which he is taught, is, that it makes the subject perfectly familiar to him, he will find no difficulty in adapting its minor details to particular circumstances.

The Elements of Geography and History, combined in a Catechetical form, for the use of families and schools. By Frederick Butler, A. M. Accompanied with an Atlas. Wethersfield, 1825. 12mo. pp. 360.

It is gratifying to observe, in modern school-books on geography, that authors and teachers are abandoning the useless and inconsistent method of conducting a child to the centre of the system, for his first lesson in a science which professes to be a description

of the earth. We wish this rational spirit of improvement were permitted to find its way into the study of geography as now pursued, and abolish the unmeaning practice of commencing with the form and composition of 'the terraqueous globe,' instead of with that portion of the earth's surface, which falls under the young learner's daily notice.

Mr. Butler's work does not begin, as we wish it did, with the United States; but it places them so near the beginning of the book, and devotes so large a space to them, that, even in this point of view, we cannot but regard his book as an important step taken towards a desirable improvement in geographical instruction.

The catechetical arrangement is adopted in this work, with a view to render the subject more easy and familiar. The design is laudable, but we doubt whether, in such cases, it is always attended with the desired result. Catechetical instruction renders the pupil's task more light; as it reduces the memory lessons to portions which he can manage. All this may be done, however, and the lesson, which is said, be still as unintelligible as ever; so that, in reality, the subject itself stands invested with all its original difficulty. We confess that we should like to see the method of alternate printed question and answer abandoned, and recourse more generally had to the simple form of consecutive paragraphs, to be enlivened by the oral explanations and questions of the teacher. That is the most efficient kind of instruction, in which the manual furnished by the author is used merely as a book of outlines to be filled up by the teacher's own mind. The writer of a school book should not go before the instructer, and, by a limited number of questions, preclude a wide range of thought, on the part of the pupil.

In other respects, Mr. Butler's Elements contain much that will be gratifying to every teacher who adopts a practical method of instruction. Some of the advantages likely to result from the use of this work, are peculiar. Geography is here combined with history: the former science is thus applied to one of its principal uses, and is rendered more pleasing than it could otherwise be to the young; while the latter is practically and thoroughly taught; and in so interesting a way, too, as to produce a desire for a more extensive knowledge of it.

Another excellent feature in the plan of this geography, is, that half of the book is allotted to America; and much the greater part of that space is occupied with the United States.

The atlas which accompanies this volume, is neatly executed; but it might be better adapted to the work it is designed to illustrate, if care were taken to insert in the maps more of the places which are mentioned in the geography.

The Practical Reader, in five Books. By M. R. Bartlett. Second Edition, corrected from the first, and enlarged. Utica, 1825. 12mo. pp. 336.

This work must have cost its author much labor. The first part contains the substance of Walker's Elocution, minutely detailed in the form of question and answer. The second part exhibits an attempt to apply the rules of vocal inflection, by means of printed accents.

The toils of the compiler have, we are sorry to observe, been but little alleviated by the diligence of the printer; for the typography of the book is shamefully careless. This negligence is to be the more regretted, as there is, perhaps, no work in the English language, in which the utmost accuracy of execution is more imperiously demanded, than in a book of accented reading lessons.

This work, though, on the part of the compiler, a minute and careful one, is not, we think, in all respects judicious or happy.

In the first place, the rules of elocution which it lays down, are too numerous. This objection is often made,—and with good reason,—to Walker's treatises. His works on elocution are very diffuse; and his rules are unnecessarily multiplied, and are apt to produce much perplexity, especially in extemporaneous reading. We quote the following just sentiments from the advertisement to the fifth edition of the Elocutionist,* a work by Mr. Knowles, one of the most successful living teachers of this branch of education, in Great Britain.

'In the introduction which follows, an attempt is made to simplify Mr. Walker's system of the inflections,—with what degree of success I leave it to the critic to judge; but, even if I have failed, I shall still content myself with the reflection, that the undertaking will most probably have the effect of causing that system to be more narrowly inquired into, and of eventually producing—what every teacher with whom I have conversed upon the subject, has acknowledged to be a thing "devoutly to be wished"—a reduction

* The Elocutionist, a collection of pieces in prose and verse, peculiarly adapted to display the Art of Reading, in the most comprehensive sense of the term. Including, among other original matter, a Debate composed expressly for the purpose of exercising the young student in purely argumentative Declamation; and preceded by an Introduction, in which an attempt is made to simplify Mr. Walker's system, and, by referring his illustrations to more general principles, to reduce the number of his rules. By James Sheridan Knowles, teacher of Elocution, Glasgow, author of the tragedy of Virginius, &c. Fifth edition. Glasgow and London, 1825. 12mo. pp. 328.

in the number, and a more lucid economy in the arrangement, of the rules.'

Mr. Bartlett might have rendered the study of elocution in this country an important service, by pruning the system of Walker, so as to reduce it to a manageable compass. The attempt has been successfully made in the department of inflections* by the Rev. Dr. Porter, of Andover.

The subject of emphasis needs a similar simplification; and various improvements might be effected in other departments.

We are sorry to observe in the application of accents denoting inflections, many mistakes for which we are afraid the printer is not to blame. We allude particularly to instances in which the rising inflection is uniformly marked at the end of several of the first clauses, in a sentence, and, particularly, where emphasis requires the falling inflection.

It is but justice, however, to this work, to observe that teachers who feel bound to adhere undeviatingly to Walker, will find the Reader present Walker's system in a more intelligible and practical form than it possesses in the works of the original author, and that consequently Mr. Bartlett's volume is better adapted to school use.

It would afford us much pleasure to see a third edition of the Reader, containing Walker's rules simplified and abridged. We hope, however, that it will appear on better paper, and be issued from a more accurate press. We may suggest, at the same time, what we think would be a valuable improvement in this and every other book on elocution,—we mean double the common space between the lines; so as to leave sufficient room for an easy and unembarrassed glance of the eye along every line with its accents and pauses. Such an aid is very serviceable to the teacher himself, when reading to his pupils; but it is peculiarly valuable to the youngest class of learners.

* Analysis of Vocal Inflections as used in Reading and Speaking: designed to render the principles of Walker's Elements more intelligible. Andover, 1824. 8vo. pp. 20.

INTELLIGENCE.

BOSTON SCIENTIFIC LIBRARY.

It is a common observation on the libraries of this city and its vicinity, especially the public ones, that they are of too miscellaneous a character. Books are admitted on all subjects, and unless the library be very large, it contains but few on any one. If intended for general use, such books are sought for as are interesting to the greatest number of persons; and a book, however valuable or important, is not procured if it would be particularly interesting to only a few individuals. As this is the case with the greater part of books on scientific subjects, very few, comparatively, are to be found in our public libraries —Indeed the want of a *collection* of scientific books has been long and very generally felt, and is peculiarly pressing at the present time, when the boundaries of knowledge are so widely extended, and rapid advances are continually making in almost every department of science. There is no accessible library which contains the translations of even the *greater part* of foreign learned Societies—those rich storehouses of the labors of men, who, during the last two centuries, have brought to unequalled perfection branches of science which had long occupied the minds of men, and have explored new regions in the kingdoms of nature and art. Nor is the deficiency less striking in the later publications. Many scientific journals and magazines, of the highest value and respectability, are not to be found in any public library, and, if taken at all, are taken only by individuals, and for individual benefit or gratification. Works are continually appearing on improvements in the arts and manufactures, as well as in science, which it would seem to be of the greatest importance for us to have, of which we see notices in the reviews and literary journals, but which every one must long for in vain, who cannot afford to import them.

There has never been so loud and earnest a call as is now heard, for exact and practical knowledge, for scientific principles, and the results of experiment, to guide in the new works of every kind, which the engineer and mechanic are erecting on all sides of us. Every one feels how poor are our means of answering this call. It has not hitherto been answered by the public. There is no tolerably complete collection, open to all, on any one science that can be named. He who wants books on any science, on any art or branch of art, is obliged to send to Europe to procure them for himself, at great expense, delay and uncertainty, hardly knowing what to send for, or what to expect, and oftentimes without the means of ascertaining the extent of his own wants.—There is no place to which the artist, or mechanic, or man of science, can resort, where he can ask with any probability or hope of a satisfactory answer, what is doing, or what has been done, on the subject which his curiosity or interest leads him to investigate.

There is no deficiency of talent for these subjects. Indeed, if there be any trait which has decidedly developed itself in our intellectual character, it is that of the quick invention and skillful application of practical principles in the arts:—But how do we allow this faculty to waste itself in discoveries that have already been made. The same genius might be employed in advancing the limits of knowledge, which is now spent in tracing paths which, perhaps, have long and frequently been trodden. While books are so much wanted, one of the strongest motives to bold perseverance in original investigations is lost in the fear, that what seems to be new is already familiarly known to others; and whoever has been led to pursue a subject however little beyond the usual course of elementary reading, must soon have felt himself impeded, if not altogether discouraged, by the want of books.

The most obvious means of supplying this want, is the formation of a library, by subscription, to consist exclusively of scientific books.—Such a library, while it admitted books on all branches of science, should contain entire sets of the transactions of learned societies, which are essential to the completeness of every scientific library. It should also be a principal object to confine the selection at first to one or two subjects of preeminent importance, in order that a complete collection on these subjects might, as soon as possible, be formed. At the same time, as many of the periodical journals of science should be constantly taken, as the funds of the institution would allow: such publications being, from their novelty, and from affording the means of tracing, at all times, the progress of discovery, particularly interesting to all.

It should be a *circulating library.*—A person will derive incomparably more benefit from a book, if allowed to take it to his own study, or his own fire-side, than if only permitted to consult it in a public room.

The advantages that would result from such an institution are so numerous, and, to any one who turns his attention to the subject, so obvious, that it is impossible in this place, to advert to all—and seems almost unnecessary to mention any of them. A well chosen library is a fountain of valuable knowledge, and one of the character here contemplated would send forth knowledge of the most useful and practical kind, such as, if acted upon, could not fail to be of public and private benefit, in developing and perfecting the resources of this section of the country. Neither would the direct influence be confined to this immediate vicinity. Individuals in the neighboring towns, even in those at a distance, might avail themselves of its use. To the committees of the legislature on the subjects of internal improvement—on roads, canals, and railways—on education—indeed on almost all subjects which fall under the notice of the representatives of an enlightened people, the value would be inestimable. To the conductors of literary and scientific journals, and to editors of newspapers of all kinds, the advantages would be no less certain, whether they estimate the value of information by its own excellence, or consider the privilege of receiving it from its original source, rather than from other newspapers. To all engaged, in any way, in the composition of scientific books, a rich scientific library is indispensable. Few books of this kind have indeed been written in New-England—and few ever will or can be written, until the sources are collected from which the materials are to be drawn. Such is the present state of books of this kind, that it is not hazarding any thing to say, that not one of the standard works on natural philosophy which are abroad, not even the best articles in the encyclopedias, could have been written here, without subjecting the author to an immense charge for foreign books.

It is often asked why regular courses of lectures on scientific subjects are not established here, as in some of our sister cities; and many persons are, at this moment, earnestly expecting or hoping for some plan for their establishment.—But the truth is that no one, not provided with a valuable library of his own, could deliver a course on many of the subjects of great interest to the public, which should be worthy of their attention. To our future lecturers, then, a scientific library is indispensable There is another class of our fellow citizens, the instructers of the public schools, who would not fail to be greatly benefitted by this institution, and by whom its advantages would be diffused throughout every part of the community. They cannot afford to provide themselves with many books; and yet it is they who are silently sowing the seeds of the future science of our country.

It may be objected, and it is perfectly true, that most persons of these classes are not in the habit of reading scientific books; but it is equally true that it is often because they have not access to them—and it would be contrary to all experience, if the circulation of such books should not make many, who now hardly know what is meant by science, to become lovers of it. In fact, in this as in most cases, consumption and supply act reciprocally on each other; and a well chosen library of science, thrown open to the public, would soon create numerous readers.

It is unnecessary to say any thing of the benefits of such a library to artists, mechanics and civil engineers, to manufacturers, merchants and navigators; they are too quicksighted not to perceive the advantages that would be certain to accrue to them from the earliest notice of the newest improvements and inventions. Indeed the best proof has already been given that the public is aware of the necessity of such an institution, and disposed to make the most vigorous exertions to procure it. We have great pleasure in stating that on Friday, the 6th January, at a meeting of gentlemen of various professions, held at the Academy's Room, Athenæum, Professor Ticknor having been called to the chair, on motion of John Lowell, Esq. it was unanimously voted,

1st. That a society be formed, to be called the 'Massachusetts Scientific Library Association.'

2d. That the terms of subscription to said Library shall be as follows, viz.: Every person who shall pay to the Treasurer of this Society not less than the sum of $100, shall be entitled to one share in the Library and the privileges of membership, which share shall be transferable on payment to the Treasurer of $20 for each transfer.—Every person who shall pay as above not less than $50, shall be entitled to a share, with all the privileges aforesaid, during his life. Every person who shall pay annually not less than the sum of $5, shall be entitled to the privileges of membership so long as he shall continue to pay his assessment. Holders of transferable shares and life members shall not be liable to future assessments.

3d. That the funds raised as aforesaid shall be laid out in procuring a Circulating Library, to consist of books on the following subjects, viz:

Mechanics, with their applications to architecture, manufacture and the arts—mathematics, pure and mixed—natural philosophy—commerce, political economy, and statistics—geography—astronomy—agriculture and horticulture—mineralogy, botany and natural history—such voyages and travels as are of a scientific character.

All books on law, medicine, theology, metaphysics, morality, history, and literature generally, are to be excluded.

Books of the kinds last mentioned are to be excluded, both because there is no such want of books on these subjects as of those of a scientific character, and because the value of a library depends very much on its completeness. A library on any one branch of science or art, so complete that it might be consulted without danger of disappointment, would be far more valuable than a much larger collection of books on a great variety of subjects, but not complete on any one. And that this completeness may be the sooner attained, it seems desirable that a selection should be made of such subjects as are of most prominent and general utility, and that an attempt be made to render the collection as perfect as possible on those branches.

To a community made up in a great measure of men of business, actively engaged in works of public and private utility, in the arts and in commerce, those publications promise to be most useful, which relate directly to the application of science to the arts and business of life, and the commercial transactions of nations. In the selection of books, preference will accordingly be given to those on Mechanics, and their various applications, particularly in civil engineering, in the construction of roads and canals, and the application of steam, water and wind to machinery—and to those on commerce, political economy and statistics.

4th. That the following gentlemen be a Committee to solicit subscriptions:

Israel Thorndike, Jr. Amos Lawrence, John A Lowell, George B Emerson, John C. Gray, John Lowell, Jr., Wm. Sturgis, Daniel Treadwell, Dr. E. Hale, Edw. Brooks.

5th. That whenever fifty members, whether shareholders, life members, or annual subscribers, shall have been obtained, the members shall be called together by the Secretary of this meeting, for the purpose of choosing officers and organising the said association.

Edward Brooks, Secretary.

EDUCATION IN OHIO.

Extract from Governor Morrow's Message, December 7th, 1825.

The character of the state, by her enterprise, and the energy of her measures, has been placed on high ground; her public credit is inviolate, and will remain secure, while sustained by an efficient system of finances; her exertion too, in the execution of extensive public works, calculated for the general benefit, attended with the most promising prospects of a favorable result.

It is indeed a subject of regret, that the picture now drawn should be obscured by any dark shades. But it is true, that the state of education and means for mental improvement among us, cannot be viewed with the same satisfaction as that of the other important interests of our country. Measures for improvement in this regard, have been a standing theme of Executive communications, ever since the commencement of our government. Much has been said, and nothing effectually done, until at the last session of the General Assembly. Then, the incipient steps were wisely taken for the introduction of a system of Common Schools. From the institutions then authorised, if duly supported and cherished by the Legislature, the most beneficial effects to society must result. The necessity of such support is obvious; because it is a palpable fact, that science and intellectual improvement have fallen far behind, in their pace, the progress of population, wealth, and general improvements on the face of the country: and equally unquestionable that the cultivation of these is essential to the well being of society. No interest, it is believed, confided to the Legislature, is of more importance than this, whether we regard it in its influence on human happiness, or on the permanency of our republican system.

MUTUAL INSTRUCTION.

General Devereux of the Colombian service, Senator Rouannes an envoy from Hayti, and Mr. Blaquiere the English Greek agent, lately met the committee of the society for elementary instruction, (Paris,) where they presented documents on the state of mutual instruction in Hayti, Colombia and Greece. The committee promised to assist in propagating instruction in those countries, and speedily to assemble a general meeting.

COLLEGE AND SCHOOL LANDS IN INDIANA.

It is stated in Gov. Ray's Message to the Legislature of Indiana, that the Common School Lands in Indiana, cansist of 608,207 acres, which at two dollars per acre, would produce a fund of $1,216,444, producing at 6 per cent interest, an income of $72,986. There are also 40,960 acres of college lands granted the State.

PROFESSIONAL AND COMMERCIAL INSTITUTION.

A meeting was held in the city of London, on an early day of last summer, for the purpose of taking into consideration the establishment of a seminary for instruction in commercial and professional science. The plan contemplated is similar to that of the Mechanics' Institute. Lectures, and the system of mutual instruction, are the methods to be adopted for imparting information on the subjects which are to constitute the course of studies.

The leading object of the proposed institution, is to furnish young men who intend entering on mecantile business, or who are already engaged in it, a circle of useful knowledge, calculated to produce those enlarged and liberal views of commercial enterprise, which shall be most conducive to the interest of the merchant, and to the prosperity of the country.

When we reflect on the large and respectable portion of British society, which the above institution will benefit, we contemplate with the sincerest satisfaction the first steps taken toward an object of so vast importance.—*Our* merchants, we hope, will not be slow to follow the good example set them in this instance. Indeed, we think that the Boston scientific library, (See intelligence in our present number,) will prove the origin of an institution similar to that in London.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

The managers of the new London University have purchased a plot of ground, of seven acres and a half, in the neighborhood of Gower Street, on which the new college is to be erected.—*Glasgow Herald.*

STATE OF EDUCATION IN THE HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

The general assembly, in 1824, appointed a committee to inquire, and to report to their next meeting, as to the existing means of education and religious instruction throughout Scotland, particularly in the Highlands and Islands. This committee accordingly transmitted to each of the ministers of the 907 parishes in the church, a list of queries, in order to ascertain the facts of the case. They received in the course of the year 800 returns, and laid before the assembly, which met in May last, a summary of the information which these returns contained.

On considering this report of the committee, the assembly came unanimously to the following decision.—"The assembly highly approve of the exertions of the committee in acquiring the knowlege of facts necessary for the prosecution of this most interesting and important object, and rejoice that the result of these exertions has been the attainment of such varied and valuable information. In regard that there does not appear to be a risk of any obstacles occurring to impede, or at least to prevent, the ultimate adoption of the proposed scheme, and that it is of the utmost importance to commence immediately to raise the funds necessary for carrying it into execution, they recommend a collection to be made throughout all the churches and chapels of the establishment, on or before the first sabbath of February. They instruct the committee, which is hereby reappointed, to open a subscription for the general purposes of the scheme, and to take every proper and prudent measure in their power, towards forwarding the object in view; and when the funds, thus raised, are ascertained, in whole or in part, the committee is farther authorised, if it shall be judged advisable, to nominate a schoolmaster or catechist, in the stations that appear most urgently to require them, after due communication held with the heritors and others concerned."

The following abridged view of the leading facts which produced this decision, will be sufficient at once to demonstrate a deplorable want of schools and catechists in many parts of the Highlands and Islands, and to secure the sympathy and liberality of the benevolent, for the remedy of this great evil.

The whole population of Scotland amounts to 2,093,856, and the church is divided into 16 synods.

Schools in Synods.

In the ten synods of Lothian and Tweeddale, Merse and Tiviotdale, Dumfries, Galloway, Glasgow and Ayr, Perth and Stirling, Fife, Angus and Mearns, Aberdeen, and Moray, there are 764 parishes, and 1,716,126 persons; and so abundant is the number of schools in these districts, that, with a few exceptions, they may be said to be well supplied with the means of education, and that there is scarcely an individual who has not been taught to read.

The remaining six synods, however, namely, Argyll, Glenelg, Ross, Sutherland and Caithness, Orkney, and Zetland, situated chiefly in the Highlands and Islands,

and containing only 143 parishes, and a population of 377,730 persons, are, as stated in the parochial returns, in the most urgent need of not less than 250 additional schools.

The number of scholars that would attend each of these 250 schools, it is computed, at a low average, would amount to 42. It follows, therefore, that in these synods there are 10,500 children left without the means of any education; and the committee are quite satisfied that the number is, in fact, much greater than the calculated number of 10,500.

These 10,500 children alluded to, are all, it is to be noticed, under 15 years of age. If persons of all ages are included, the number of those not taught to read almost exceeds belief. But how could it be otherwise, when more parishes than one are described as not having a sufficient number of schools to accommodate one tenth of their population? Several are said to be in need of three and four, and one of even six schools, and as to another, the appalling fact is mentioned, that it consists of 1000 square miles, and has a population of 4747 souls, and that of these only 995 have learned to read at all.

Catechists in Synods.

In the first ten synods abovementioned, there are only six catechists stated to be necessary for the due means of religious instruction to the people; and this necessity arises from the large territorial extent of some particular parishes.

In the other six synods abovementioned, no fewer than 130 catechists are required! Nor will this lamentable deficiency seem surprising when the physical localities of the country are considered. There are many islands in it at great distances from the coast. The coast of the mainland is often indented by long arms of the sea, and its whole surface is intersected, and in many places rendered impassable, by precipitous mountains, and by rapid rivers.

One parish, 17 miles long, on the mainland, has an island belonging to it with a population of 300, situate at 24 miles from the shore, and owing to its great distance, and a dangerous navigation intervening, the minister cannot visit it above once in the year. Another parish consists of nine islands, of which six are inhabited; and it extends, including sea, 50 miles in length and 30 in breadth; and a third parish of 24 miles long, on the mainland, includes four inhabited islands, some of which are 20 miles distant from each other.

Each of these parishes has only the parochial minister to perform every pastoral spiritual duty to the people.

The inducements that we have to attempt the remedy of the evils in question, are great and inviting.

1 In reference to the means of education by the establishment of schools, every encouragement is held forth which can arise from the characteristic acuteness of the population concerned; from their habits, connected with their peculiar custom of frequenting village meetings, for hearing and committing to memory the history and poetry of their clans and country; and, above all, from the extraordinary and growing eagerness they have of late manifested for the blessing of education.

Many children, it is stated in the returns of the clergy, are prevented from attending a school by their distance from it, and by poverty, disqualifying parents for paying the school fees, or purchasing school books; but few or none are prevented by indifference. On the contrary, the best clothes of the parents have, in some instances, been sold to defray the expense of educating their children. Adults too, from twenty to seventy years of age, crowd everywhere to newly erected schools, which happen, from their situation, to be at all accessible to them; and from their ardor and assiduity in their tasks, such persons do often make a rapidity of progress unheard of in other districts; from six to twelve months (of which numerous instances are specified) being sufficient to qualify them to read the scriptures with facility Nor is it uncommon for a boy to be sent by the joint subscription of the poor inhabitants of the hamlets of a glen, to be boarded and educated at a distance, and for this boy, on his return, to become

the schoolmaster of his neighborhood, after the labors of the day, with himself and those who are to be his scholars, are over. And to all this may be added the interesting fact, that when either a youth or an adult acquires the qualification of reading, it is the frequent practice of his less fortunate neighbors (grandfathers and grandmothers, parents and children, mixing in the same group) to listen to—what otherwise they could not have heard but from their ministers, whose visits are necessarily "few and far between,"—the glad tidings of salvation read to them from the book of God.

2. In reference to increasing the means of religious instruction by employing additional catechists, the committee have to state, that there are also powerful inducements to attempt this measure.

The inhabitants of the Highlands and Islands have a profound respect for religious institutions, and an ardent thirst for religious knowledge. Amidst difficulties totally unknown in the Lowlands, and next to insuperable in themselves, they repair in crowds to the accessible places of worship on the ordinary sabbaths; and it is common for them, on occasion of the sacrament of the Lord's supper being dispensed in their own or in an adjoining parish church, to go from great distances, sometimes by sea and sometimes by land, in large groups, and carrying with them all the necessary means of lodging and subsistence during the period of their stay. On the Monday after the sacrament, in one particular parish, there may be seen the beautiful and touching spectacle of from 40 to 50 boats setting sail at once, to bear homewards the pious multitudes, who from the remotest boundaries of its vast extent (50 miles by 38) have been devoutly in attendance on the service of the communion.

While, however, the committee state the sad privations as to the means of education, and of religious instruction, existing in these sequestered districts, and the inducements, from the dispositions and habits of the people, that encourage attempts to alleviate the evils to which they are exposed, they feel it their duty to state also, that the committee on the royal bounty, the Society for Propagating Christian Knowledge, and various private institutions, have rendered most important service in this good cause. But still the funds of these respectable bodies, though managed with the utmost judgement and economy, and their labors, though most faithful and zealous, are utterly inadequate to meet the exigencies of the case. An immense field of beneficence yet remains to be cultivated by the general assembly, and, through them, by the christian public.—*Glas. Herald.*

GLASGOW MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.

On the 9th August last, Mr. John Deuchar, M. W. S., formerly President of the Royal Physical Society, &c. &c., was unanimously elected Lecturer on chemistry and mechanics in the Glasgow Mechanics' Institution.—*Glas. Herald.*

WESLEYAN ACADEMY, WILBRAHAM, MASS.

While this institution provides for the prosperity of the church, by retaining in the field of labor her most useful ministers, it affords means for their children to obtain a religious and literary education, on principles adapted to useful life. The following is the system of education, recommended by the Board of Trustees:—

1. There shall be taught reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, geography, composition, book-keeping, mathematics, logic, natural and moral philosophy, and astronomy. The languages usually taught in academical institutions. Females will be taught the most important branches of domestic economy, plain and ornamental needle-work, painting, drawing, &c.

2. There shall be an instructer to direct the studies of pious young men, who, from a sense of duty, are expecting to enter into the gospel ministry.

3. All the scholars, except those who are town residents, are to board in the institution, and the superintendent is to have the care of them as members of his own family, when not engaged in their studies.

4. The instructers shall take suitable times, when out of school hours, to exercise the scholars in the practical application of those branches of mathematical science which they have studied in school, such as measuring solids and superfices, guaging and weighing—taking heights and distances, &c. They shall also take opportunities for exercising those who have studied composition, rhetoric, and logic, in declamation and forensic disputation. The teachers shall also give lectures on chemistry, with practical experiments and illustrations, and illustrate the principles of natural and moral philosophy in general.

5. It is proposed, in connection with the Institution, to cultivate an extensive garden and farm. under the superintendence of an experienced and scientific agriculturalist, in which those scholars who wish to acquire a theoretical and practical knowledge of agriculture may be taught; and others who may desire to do something towards their own maintenance, may have the privilege of laboring when out of school, and they shall be allowed a suitable compensation for their labors.

6. Work-shops are also to be provided, and furnished with suitable tools, where the scholars, under the direction of an experienced mechanic, shall be taught the use of tools in various kinds of mechanical labor.

The Legislature of Massachusetts has granted an act of incorporation to the *Wesleyan Academy;* and the New-England Conference have resolved to patronise the Institution, and to use their influence to raise subscriptions to aid its funds. —*Zion's Herald.*

COLLEGE AT GENEVA, NEW YORK.

The Rev. ALONZO POTTER, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Union College Schenectady, has been elected President of the Episcopal College lately organised at Geneva in the State of New York.

PROCEEDINGS OF CONGRESS ON EDUCATION.

Common Schools.

On motion of Mr. Strong of N. Y. the Committee on Public Lands was instructed to inquire into the expediency of appropriating a portion of the net annual proceeds of the sales and entries of the public lands, exclusively for the support of *common schools*—and of apportioning the same among the several States in proportion to the representation of each in the House of Representatives.

Education of the Children of Seamen.

On motion of Mr. Holcombe, of N J. the Committee on Naval Affairs was instructed to inquire into the expediency of establishing a school or schools for the education of children in destitute circumstances, (the sons of American seamen to be preferred,) to be articled to serve when required, on board of the public ships of the United States, until twenty-one years of age; the object of the institution being to furnish the Navy, from year to year, with a number of competent and well educated petty officers.

United States Naval School.

Mr. Storrs, from the Naval Committee, reported a bill for the establishment of a *Naval School.*

This bill authorises the President to establish a school for the improvement and instruction of the Midshipmen, and other officers of the Navy. That the said school may be located on any land now held by the United States, for Naval or Military purposes, and shall be subject to regulations to be prescribed by the President—that it shall be under the command of a captain of the navy, to be selected by the President—that one Professor of Natural and Experimental Phi-

losophy and Astronomy—one Professor of Mathematics and Navigation—one teacher of Geography and History—one Teacher of the French and Spanish Languages, and one Fencing Master, shall be appointed by the President.—And the Secretary of the Navy is authorised to provide the necessary books, implements, and apparatus for the School.

MERCANTILE LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

Philadelphia Mercantile Library.

A Mercantile Library Company has been formed five years in Philadelphia, and has met with encouraging success. The number of volumes is 1500, the annual subscription two dollars, and it is patronised by the most respectable Merchants.

New-York Mercantile Library.

In five years, the young men who compose the New-York Mercantile Library Association, by the most commendable perseverance and exertions, have collected a library of *twenty-two hundred volumes* of well selected books.

Boston Mercantile Library.

At a meeting of Merchants and their Clerks, held at the Commercial Coffee House in the spring of 1820, was first projected the establishment of a Library and Reading Room, for the benefit of young men engaged in Mercantile pursuits. The plan met with general approbation. An association having been formed, with suitable rules and regulations for its government, by the munificence of individuals and the active zeal of the young men, it was speedily carried into operation, and a room centrally situated (over Merchants' Hall) fitted up for the purpose at considerable expense. The subscription list increased rapidly, and the object of the association was successful beyond the expectations of its most sanguine friends.

At the formation of the Library many of the most respectable and influential merchants of Boston, entered zealously into the cause, made liberal donations in money, and furnished many valuable books. The young men having so laudable an example before them, generally came forward and connected themselves with the association.

The Library room is open every evening, (Sundays excepted,) from the 1st September to the 1st of May, and three evenings in a week during the remainder of the year. Books may be taken from the room and returned in exchange for others as often as the proprietors may wish, or they remain there and peruse them, where perfect silence and decorum at all times prevail. There are now arranged on the shelves nearly eleven hundred volumes, including many interesting and useful works; but there exists an almost universal desire for the occasional new publications; and here the directors would observe, that the reduced state of their funds has prevented them from making any addition for some time past, and to this they attribute in a great degree the withdrawing of many of the old subscribers, and the difficulty experienced in procuring new ones.

PRIZES AWARDED TO WORKS ON EDUCATION.

At the late annual sitting of the French Academy, the prizes for publications conducive to morals and virtue, were awarded to the Baron de Gerando, for a work on 'Moral Improvement, or Self Education,' and to the work of the late Madame Campan, "on Education."—*Ch. Obs. Nov.* 1825.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN BALTIMORE.

A bill has passed the Maryland House of Delegates, granting power to the Mayor and city Council of Baltimore, to establish public schools within that city, and to lay taxes for the support of such schools.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Catalogue of the Officers and Cadets, together with the prospectus and internal Regulations of the American Literary, Scientific, and Military Academy, at Middletown, Connecticut. Middletown, 1826. 12mo. pp. 42.

That Capt. Partridge's Academy meets with a large share of public approbation and patronage, is apparent from the fact that the present number of students is two hundred and eighty nine—of professors and other instructers, eighteen

The principal of this flourishing seminary is distinguished not only as an instructer thoroughly versed in military science, but as an enlightened and successful advocate of practical education.

An agricultural seminary, we confess, is more to our taste than a military one. Capt. Partridge's system, however, presents so many excellent features, that we shall not restrict ourselves to this brief notice, but, at our earliest opportunity, shall take up the subject at greater length.

Monitorial Schools. The Origin, Progress, and Advantages of the Monitorial System of Tuition, set forth in an Address delivered on the occasion of the opening of the Elizabeth-Town Public School, December 14th, 1825. By John C. Rudd, D. D., Rector of St. John's Church. Elizabeth-Town, 1826. 12mo. pp. 18.

The rapid increase of the number of monitorial schools, is a pleasing fact in the progress of education. The impression seems to be everywhere gaining ground, that these schools afford a more direct and efficient method of instruction than is furnished in others.

The monitorial system possesses, indeed, many advantages over the common method. It devolves upon the pupil's own exertions a larger share of his own advancement; and produces therefore greater force and activity of mind. The whole routine of school occupation is so much enlivened by this system, that the school hours become the most pleasant of the day. But our present limits forbid our entering farther into these topics. We can barely afford room to mention the decided superiority of the monitorial plan, in the admirable school of preparation which it forms for such pupils as are in after life to become teachers.

In the first part of his address, Dr. Rudd takes great pains to show that a due share of the honor of originating the system of mutual instruction, is not accorded to Dr Bell. The second part of the address presents a brief and cursory view of the intellectual, moral, and physical advantages of monitorial instruction. The limits to which the author has confined himself, render his pamphlet less interesting than the fuller treatises on the same subject, to which we have already called the attention of our readers. But the true test of the merits of this tract, is its success in accomplishing its local purposes, which we have no doubt it has fully done.

Young Ladies' Astromony. A concise System of physical, practical and descriptive Astronomy: designed particularly for the assis-

tance of Young Ladies, in that interesting and sublime study; though well adapted to the use of Common Schools. By M. R. Bartlett. Utica, 1825. 4to. pp. 195.

This is a simple, familiar, and practical work, excellently adapted to its purpose. A popular treatise on astronomy, constructed so as to dispense with the more difficult mathematical illustrations, has, we think, been much wanted for the use of females, as well as for that of youth of the other sex, who enter early on business, and who cannot bring to the study of this subject a mind disciplined by mathematical instruction. Mr. Bartlett's work will, we hope, be extensively adopted in academies and schools.

In a second edition, the author will, it is to be hoped, abandon the catechetical arrangement, and thus leave more scope for the mind of the young learner to exercise itself in furnishing appropriate answers to the questions.

Epitome Historiæ Græcæ cum Appendice de Diis et Heroibus poeticis. Accedit Dictionarium Latino-Anglicum. Editio Prima Americana, Novi Portus. 18mo. Epitome, pp. 100: Appendix, 148: Dictionary, 110. 1822.

We take notice of this meritorious little work, not merely from its intrinsic character, but its connection with the advances of improvement in teaching. This is one of that useful class of publications for which we stand indebted to the French classical schools, and which has, within a few years, been furnished to fill up the enormous gap previously existing between Cordery and——Virgil!

After several years' use of this interesting book, in the instruction of different classes, we can cheerfully recommend it to such teachers as may not yet have adopted it. There are but few boys so dull or so regardless as to be able to resist the fascination of this little history.

A Standard Spelling-book, or the Scholar's Guide to an accurate Pronunciation of the English Language; accompanied with easy, familiar, and progressive Reading Lessons. Designed as an Introduction to the use of Walker's Critical Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language. Compiled for the Use of Schools. By James H. Sears. Revised Edition. New-Haven, 1825.

In many schools in which Walker's dictionary is used by scholars of the middle class, it has unaccountably been customary to make use, in the youngest class, of a spelling-book entirely at war with Walker's principles. This oversight is the cause of much trouble, and much waste of time, in building up, and pulling down, and rebuilding,—where the first effort might erect a perfect fabric at once.—The spelling-book before us, is intended to accomplish this object. Of its success we have no doubt. The utmost care has been bestowed on its arrangement. In several other particulars which our limits will not permit us to mention, it possesses equal merit.—The internal character of the book corresponds, in all respects, to the neatness and care of its execution.

A Catechism of English Grammar, with Practical Exercises, prepared for the use of the School of Mutual Instruction in Boston. By the Instructer. Boston, 1823. 12mo. pp. 68.

Murray's Grammar is universally esteemed a very systematic work. There is not, however, the same unanimity about the merits of his system when considered with reference to the genius of the English language.—We have no room here for discussion. We can only avow our opinion as coinciding with that of those writers who assert that, in Mr. Murray's exposition of English grammar,

there is too much accommodation to the idioms and the etymology of the Latin language. We are happy, therefore, to invite the attention of our readers to such books as this of Mr. Fowle:—not that we consider this little work perfect in all respects, but as a valuable improvement which gives excellent pledge of the future character of this and other current abridgements of grammar.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Prize, or the Story of George Benson and William Sandford. Newburyport, 1824. 18mo. pp. 36.

This is an uncommonly simple and natural little story. It is exceedingly interesting; and the moral lessons which it inculcates, cannot but make a deep impression. George is perhaps rather too good a boy for ordinary life. The account of the reformation of William, however, is very pleasing, and forms a happy close to the story.

In some books for children, an attempt is made to deter from vice, by exhibiting the dismal end of evil doers. But the coloring of such representations, is sometimes so strong, that the narrative becomes too gloomy for the tender and susceptible feelings of the infant mind.

The plan which is adopted at the close of this story, is, we think, a more successful, as well as a more pleasant one: the scene is shifted from the depressing consciousness of guilt, to the happy feelings of a reformed heart. The impression left on the mind of the young reader, after the perusal of such a tale, is the still small voice, which was not heard till the horrors of the tempest had passed away.

The sermon at the end of the book, contains, we doubt, too many expressions unintelligible to young children. The questions, however, which are judiciously annexed, will enable a child to understand the substance and scope of the discourse.

It is we think a recommendation to this book that the story is American. Many of the details of children's books published in England, are necessarily unintelligible to young readers in this country, owing to the difference in the circumstances of life and manners, as well as of political institutions.—In books for children, there should not be a single unintelligible expression.

Harry and Lucy concluded; being the last part of Early Lessons. By Maria Edgeworth. 3 vols. 18mo. Boston, 1825.

These volumes are intended by their ingenious author to entice young people to the study of the mechanic contrivances and scientific apparatus, which are commonly classed under the head of useful inventions. The chief aim of the work, however, is to present all these subjects in that light which is best suited to produce careful comparison, to elicit judgement and reflection, and to suggest such combinations of thought as may aid the inventive efforts of the imaginative faculty. Our present limits will not permit us to do more than mention that this is one of the best of those publications which are turning the current of public opinion on early education, and which are leading judicious parents and instructers to allow the stream of knowledge to flow into the juvenile mind, through the appointed medium of the senses.

To praise any of Miss Edgeworth's attempts would be idle. The American public has long since assigned her one of the highest places among the friends of parents and of youth. The following account of her present work is extracted from the 'preface addressed to parents.'

'These volumes are intended for young people, from the age of ten to fourteen. They complete the series of "Early Lessons;" an humble work, from which no literary fame can be acquired, but which I have been most desirous to com-

plete, from the belief that it will be more useful than any other in my power. I have had another motive for finishing it; one, which, though it may be no concern of the public, I may be permitted to name. Harry and Lucy was begun by my father, above fifty years ago, for the use of his own family, and published at a time when no one of any literary character, excepting Dr. Watts and Mrs. Barbauld, had ever condescended to write for children. That little book was, I believe, the very first attempt to give any correct elementary knowledge or taste for science in a narrative suited to the comprehension of children, and calculated to amuse and interest, as well as to instruct. Finding, from experience, that it answered the intended purpose, my father continued the book at intervals; and in the last part, published in 1813, I had the pleasure of assisting him. He then communicated many ideas for the completion of his plan, which I thought too valuable to be abandoned.

'I have endeavored to pursue, in this Conclusion of Early Lessons, my father's object in their commencement—to exercise the powers of attention, observation, reasoning, and invention, rather than to teach any one science, or to make any advance beyond first principles. The essential point is to excite a thirst for knowledge, without which it is in vain to pour the full tide even to the lips.'

Miss Edgeworth is a decided friend to *mutual instruction*, as will appear from the following passage.

'Much that would be tiresome and insufferable to young people, if offered by preceptors in a didactic tone, will be eagerly accepted when suggested in conversation, especially in conversations between themselves: Children can go on talking to one another much longer than they can bear to hear the address, however wise or eloquent, of any grown person. Young people, of good disposition, learn with peculiar ease from each other, because the young teacher has not forgotten his own difficulties: knowing exactly where they lay, he sees how to remove them, or assist another over the obstacles. The great preceptor, standing on the top of the ladder of learning, can hardly stretch his hand down to the poor urchin at the bottom, looking up to him in despair; but an intermediate companion, who is only a few steps above, can assist him with a helping hand, can show him where to put his foot safely; and now urging, now encouraging, can draw him up to any height within his own attainment.

'The system of mutual instruction can be still more advantageously pursued in teaching the rudiments of science than those of literature, and may be extended even to higher branches of intellectual education. Upon this principle, in the following volumes, the young brother is employed to teach his sister what he has learned, either from his father, or from books.'

At a time like the present, when conversation so often turns on inventions and improvements, these volumes must we think, form a very acceptable present to the young. Parents and children are under equal obligations to the publishers of this useful work.

Nursery Morals, chiefly in monosyllables: original and selected. By a Lady. Baltimore. 1823. 18mo. pp. 177.

This is one of the few books of its kind, of which we can speak with unmingled approbation. It is perfectly intelligible, it is highly pleasing, and it conveys, in a kind and cheerful tone, many a valuable lesson. It would make, notwithstanding its title, one of the best books of lessons for primary schools.

We have not the happiness of knowing who the lady is who has conferred such a favor on the community. But we earnestly hope that she will continue her efforts in a department in which they are so successful, and in which they are so much needed.